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HISTORICAL ATLAS

OF

MODERN EUROPE

HISTORICAL ATLAS

OF

MODERN EUROPE

FROM

THE DECLINE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE

COMPRISING ALSO MAPS OF

PARTS OF ASIA, AFRICA, AND THE NEW WORLD

CONNECTED WITH EUROPEAN HISTORY

140719
ac

EDITED BY

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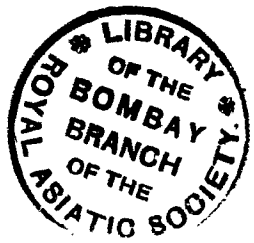

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PREFACE

THE founder of the modern historical atlas was Karl von Spruner, a young officer in the Bavarian army, who issued the first edition of his 'Historisch-geographischer Hand-Atlas zur Geschichte der Staaten Europas von Anfang des Mittelalters bis auf die neueste Zeit' in 1846, through the enterprise of the famous Gotha publisher, Wilhelm Perthes. A second edition appeared in 1854. Though his military duties called him away from the further improvement and revision of this work—he lived to become his Excellency Karl Spruner von Merz, General of Infantry, and died on August 24, 1892—his name remains indissolubly associated with the Atlas. It was fortunate that just at the right time a man with a special gift for historical chartography was ready to take up the task. This was Dr. Theodor Menke, who settled at Gotha in 1864, and after fifteen years' labour produced the third edition of Spruner's Atlas (1880), an edition which was so completely remodelled that it may almost rank as a new and independent work.

The Atlas of 1880 forms the basis of all more recent general historical atlases worthy of the name. In some, as in the 'Allgemeiner Historischer Hand-Atlas,' edited by Professor G. Droysen (1886), the scheme of arrangement is changed and the maps are simplified, but the substance, at least so far as the mediaeval and modern periods are concerned, is the same; indeed, so excellent was the revision of Menke that few historical scholars would venture to recast his maps as a whole, though corrections have been found necessary in many details. Consequently the present Atlas is under no smaller obligations to Spruner and Menke and to the house of Justus Perthes than were its predecessors. Unlike Droysen, it has preserved the scheme of the older book—of presenting Europe as a whole and each country by itself, in a series of maps showing its geography at different periods, rather than giving maps of Europe and of such of the different countries as might appear historically most important, distributed in a single chronological series. Each method has its advantages; but those of the former seem to be superior for the purposes of practical study. On the other hand, like Droysen we have been impressed by the need of not attempting too much. A map in which the names are unduly crowded loses much of its value, and we have chosen to sacrifice completeness to utility. Whoever wants, for instance, to study the detailed topography of Germany in the Carolingian age must still make use of the remarkable set of six maps of 'Deutschlands Gaue' constructed by Menke. It has, however, been found possible to make consecutive maps of different periods supplement one another, and by this means a relative degree of fullness has been attained. Similarly, the mediaeval, modern, latinized, and anglicized forms of proper names make their appearance in turn on these maps, which thus serve to translate and explain one another.

No historical atlas of Europe possessing a scientific value has hitherto appeared in Great Britain, for the volume of maps accompanying the late Professor Freeman's 'Historical

Geography of Europe' (2nd ed., 1882), excellent as it is, expressly laid no claim to the character of an historical atlas. If the present Atlas is largely based upon that of Spruner and Menke, assistance has also been obtained from many other sources, as for instance from M. Auguste Longnon's unfortunately incomplete 'Atlas Historique de la France' (1885–1889). In certain sections, notably those illustrating Byzantine, Asiatic, and Colonial history, the maps are in most respects independent of any previous atlas. Still more is this true of the series concerned with the British Isles. These maps, sixteen in number, stand by themselves in the Atlas, for no previous attempt has been made, on anything like the same scale or with the same detail of execution, to bring out the territorial changes, civil and ecclesiastical, of the three kingdoms. The work of the late Mr. C. H. Pearson, published in 1869 and 1870, was indeed characterized by great industry and originality; but the process by which the maps were produced was so unsatisfactory that they never won the recognition which they deserved. Besides, they suffered from an excess of theory; they were rather the sketches of a man of genius than elaborated maps based throughout on critical study. It is hoped that the present series will be found to have escaped some of these objections and to mark a real advance in the treatment of British historical geography.

When this Atlas was planned in 1891, the length of time over which its publication would extend could not be foreseen; but as the maps dealing with more modern history came to be designed, it was necessary to fix a terminal date at which the indication of territorial changes should end. This was placed in the year 1897, the memorable sixtieth year of QUEEN VICTORIA, and this limit has been uniformly maintained with a single exception. The events of the past three years have drawn special attention to South Africa, and it has seemed desirable, and indeed essential to the completeness of the Atlas, to add a supplementary map showing the historical development of that region previous to the annexation of the Boer Republics in 1900.

The Editor desires in conclusion to express his sincere thanks to those without whose co-operation this work could never have been undertaken; to Messrs. W. and A. K. Johnston, who projected the entire scheme, and to the many scholars who have drawn and revised the several maps. Their names, he is sure, will command the confidence of historical students, and it is on the judgement of such that the Atlas depends for its success. Particular mention must be made of the kindness of his friend Professor Oman, to whom he is indebted for many suggestions and corrections. For the maps to which no contributor's name is assigned the Editor is himself responsible.

June, 1902.

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I

THE ROMAN EMPIRE FROM DIOCLETIAN TO THE DEATH OF THEODOSIUS I (285–395 A.D.)

I

THE ROMAN EMPIRE FROM DIOCLETIAN TO THE DEATH OF THEODOSIUS I (285–395 A.D.)

I. **Annexations.** Four chief annexations of new territory had been made during the Principate (27 B.C.–285 A.D.), not including the incorporation of dependencies, like Mauretania and Arabia, into the provincial system. These were: *Germany* between Rhine and Elbe (10 B.C.), *Britain* (43 A.D.), *Dacia* (107 A.D.), and the *Eastern Lands* (Armenia, Adiabene, Mesopotamia, and Babylonia) conquered by TRAJAN (115–116 A.D.). With the exception of Britain these acquisitions were almost entirely lost before DIOCLETIAN'S accession. Germany had remained Roman for only eighteen years (except some regions near the Rhine); Trajan's eastern conquests were lost as soon as won; and his northern conquest Dacia was abandoned by Aurelian, 270 A.D., by which act the Danube became again the northern boundary of the Empire.

Under Diocletian annexations were made in the East (297 A.D.) at the expense of Persia. A line drawn northeastward from Circesium to the Tigris became the boundary of the Empire, and five countries on the Upper Tigris (*Arzanene*, *Zabdicene*, *Corduene*, *Moxoene*, *Sophene*) were acquired, but did not become provincial, being governed by native satraps. These acquisitions, more permanent than Trajan's, remained Roman for more than half a century; they were won back for Persia by Sapor, and formally ceded to him in 363 A.D.—The only other extension of territory in this period was the reconquest of North Britain (by Theodosius) from Tyne to Forth in 369 A.D., which (originally conquered between the reigns of Domitian and Antoninus) had been allowed to slip away. This reconquered land became the province of *Valentia*.

More important than these changes in boundary were Diocletian's new principle of dividing the Roman world between two Emperors (*Augusti*), and his redistribution of the provinces.

II. **Partitions of the Empire.** Diocletian (285 A.D.) divided the Empire into *two* parts; himself taking the eastern half, east of Raetia, and assigning the western to MAXIMIAN. The western half was again, in fact, though not in name, bisected; the Caesar Constantius governing Gaul and Britain, the Augustus Maximian Spain, Africa, and Italy. The partition in the East does not appear to have been so rigid; Diocletian did not strictly confine himself to Asia, nor the Caesar Galerius to the Danubian lands.—A true *quadruple* partition was brought about by the events which followed Diocletian's resignation (305 A.D.). In 311 A.D. we find the East divided by the Aegean and Propontis between Licinius (the Danubian lands) and Maximin (Asia and Egypt); the West (as before) between Constantine and the Caesar Maxentius.—The partition between Constantine and Licinius in 314 A.D. is noteworthy, as drawing a line between *Thrace* (which went with the eastern half to Licinius) and the rest of the Illyric peninsula. This division lasted till 324 A.D., when the Empire was united again under CONSTANTINE.—That Emperor arranged a quadruple division between his sons and nephew in 335 A.D., but after his death there was a triple division between his three sons; CONSTANTIUS getting the portion of Licinius, Thrace and the East; CONSTANS Illyricum, Italy, Africa; CONSTANTINE Gaul, Britain, Spain.—The Empire was once more united from 350 to 364 A.D., in which year the dual partition of 314 A.D. was repeated by VALENTINIAN (West) and VALENS (East). Note that the separation of Thrace from Illyricum, introduced in 314 A.D., was repeated in 335, in 337, and in 364.—In 379 A.D. a new departure was made on the elevation of THEODOSIUS I, who obtained, in addition to the realm of Valens, *Eastern Illyricum* (=Dioceses of Dacia and Macedonia, see below).—This division was repeated in the final partition of the Empire between the sons of Theodosius in 395 A.D.; and corresponded roughly to the line of linguistic demarcation between Latin-speaking and Greek-speaking peoples (see the inset map).

III. **Provinces, Dioceses, and Prefectures.** In the later years of the Principate, as the 'dyarchy' was fast moving towards monarchy and the functions of the Senate as an independent body were diminishing, the line between Senatorial and Imperial provinces was vanishing, and a new provincial organization was required. This reorganization was made by Diocletian, developed by Constantine, and by the end of the fourth century we find a stereotyped 'hierarchical' system, by which the Empire consists of four *Prefectures* (see the inset map), each Prefecture of a number of *Dioceses*, each Diocese of a number of *Provinces*. As a rule the Dioceses were larger, and the new Provinces smaller, than the old Provinces.

The evidence for the development of the new system is meagre. The first rearrangement of provinces and grouping in Dioceses were the work of Diocletian, and there is evidence which suggests that there were four Pr. Prefects under Diocletian. The fixing of four territorial Prefectures is, however, ascribed (by Zosimus) to Constantine. But it was not recognized as essential till a later period, for we find only three Prefectures in the middle of the fourth century.

Dioceses. According to the earliest arrangement (that of Diocletian) there were twelve Dioceses: (1) D. Britanniarum, (2) D. Galliarum, (3) D. Viennensis = septem (or quinque) Provinciarum, (4) D. Hispaniarum, (5) D. Africae, (6) D. Italiae, (7) D. Pannoniarum (or Illyrici), (8) D. Moesiarum, (9) D. Thraciae, (10) D. Asiana, (11) D. Pontica, (12) D. Orientis.

The Dioceses remained twelve in number till 376 A.D. or later, but not quite the same. Two changes took place. (3), comprising Southern Gaul, was united with (2) into a single

THE
ROMAN EMPIRE
Circa 350 A.D.
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300
D. Diocese
Longitude East 10 of Greenwich
THE
ROMAN EMPIRE
in
379 & 395 A.D.
English Miles
100 0 100 200 300 400 500
D. Diocese
Long. E. 20 of Greenw.
OCEANUS ATLANTICUS
MARE GERMANICUM
OCEANUS SARMATICUS
MARE MEDITERRANEUM
MARE CASPIUM
S. HYRCANUM
SCANDIA
HIBERNIA
BRITANNIA
GERMANIA
SARMATIA
DACIA
THRACE
ASIA
CYPRUS
ARMENIA
PERSARUM
Arabia Deserta
Arabia Petræa
Phœnice
Libanensis
Pentapolis
Syrtis Major
SARDINIA
CORSICA
Baleares I.
Britannia Prima
Britannia Secunda
Maxima Cæsariensis
Valentia
Flavia Cæsariensis
Sequanica
Lugdunensis Prima
Lugdunensis Secunda
Belgica I.
Belgica II.
Germania I.
Germania II.
Alpes Cottiæ
Alpes Maritimæ
Alpes Graiæ et Penninæ
Raetia I.
Raetia II.
Noricum Ripense
Noricum Mediterraneum
Pannonia I.
Pannonia II.
Savia
Dalmatia
Moesia I.
Moesia II.
Dacia Ripensis
Dacia Mediterranea
Dardania
Praevalitana
Thessalia
Macedonia
Salutaris
Rhodope
Hellespontus
Asiana
Pisidia
Lycia et Pamphylia
Insulæ
Pontica
Paphlagonia
Bithynia et Helenopontus
Galatia
Cappadocia
Galatia Salutaris
Cilicia
Isauria
Lycaonia
Phrygia Pacatiana
Phrygia Salutaris
Lydia
Caria
Cyprus
Osrhoëne
Mesopotamia
Augustamnica
Aegyptus
Arcadia
Thebais
Libya Superior
Libya Inferior
Tripolitana
Byzacena
Numidia
Mauretania Sitifensis
Mauretania Cæsariensis
Tingitana
Africa
Proconsularis
Numidia
Mauretania Cæsariensis
Tingitana
Diocese of Britain
Diocese of Gaul
Diocese of Spain
Diocese of Italy
Diocese of Illyricum
Diocese of Africa
Diocese of Asia
Diocese of Pontica
Diocese of Oriens
Diocese of Egypt
Prefecture of the East
Prefecture of Illyricum
Prefecture of Italy
Prefecture of Africa
Saxones
Franci
Burgundiones
Alamanni
Quadi
Marcomanni
Gepidæ
Carpi
Sciri
Rugii
Bastarnæ
Hunni
Alani
Roxolani
Taifali
Vandali
Visigothi
Ostrogothi
Gruthungi
Thervingi
Heruli
Iberia
Albania
Caucasus Mons
Colchis
Sarmatia
Scythia
Germania
Gallia
Hispania
Britannia
Italia
Illyricum
Africa
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Gallic Diocese, called officially D. Sept. Provv.; and (8) was broken up into two, D. Dacia and D. Macedonia.—Each Diocese was under a *vicarius* (except the original D. Gall.; D. Illyr. when joined with Italy; and D. Dacia). But the vicar of the East (12), whose district was very large, and who had under him both the Prefect of Egypt and a vicar of Mesopotamia, soon obtained the special title Count of the East.

Soon after 376 Egypt became a separate Diocese (13) under the Augustal Prefect. The new Diocese was larger than the old Province, as it contained Cyrenaica.

Provinces, c. 350 A.D.[1] [earlier arrangements are indicated in round, later in square, brackets]. 1. D. Britain: Britannia i, Brit. ii, Maxima Caesariensis, Flavia Caesariensis; these provinces cannot be identified; [Valentia, 369]. 2. D. Gaul or vii Provv.: (D. Gall.) Lugdunensis i [=Lugd. i, and Lugd. Senonia], Lugd. ii [=Lugd. ii, and Lugd. iii], Belgica i, Belg. ii, Germania i, Germ. ii, Sequania, Alpes Poen. et Graiae; (D. vii Prov.) Aquitanica i, Aquit. ii, Novempopulana, Narbonensis i, Narb. ii, Viennensis, Alpes Maritimae. 3. D. Spain: Baetica, Lusitania, Gallaecia, Tarraconensis, Carthaginiensis, Mauretania Tingitana, [Insulae Baleares]. 4. D. Africa: Africa Proconsularis or Zeugitana, Byzacena, Numidia Cirtensis, Num. Tripolitana, Mauretania Sitifensis, Maur. Caesariensis[2]. 5. D. Italy: Venetia Istria, Aemilia Liguria [Aemilia, Liguria], Flaminia et Picenum annonarium, Alpes Cottiae, Raetia i, Raetia ii (Raetia);—under *vicarius urbis Romae:* Tuscia Umbria, Picenum suburbicarium, Campania, Samnium (Campania et Samnium), Valeria, Lucania Bruttii, Apulia Calabria, Sicilia, Sardinia (Sicilia et Sardinia), Corsica.—But it is uncertain whether some of the double provinces were separated before or after 350 A.D. 6. D. Illyricum (Pannoniae): Pannonia inferior, Pannon. sup., Savia, Valeria, Dalmatia, Noricus mediterranea, Nor. ripariensis. 7. D. Dacia (part of D. Moesiae): Dacia [ripensis], Moesia sup., Dardania [Dardania, Dacia mediterranea], Praevalitana. 8. D. Macedonia: Macedonia i, Mac. Salutaris, Epirus vetus, Ep. nova, Thessalia, Achaia, Creta. 9. D. Thrace: Europa, Thracia, Haemimontus, Rhodopa, Moesia inf., Scythia. 10. D. Asia: Phrygia Pacatiana or i, Phrygia Salutaris or ii, Lydia, Caria, Lycia Pamphylia [Lycia, Pamphylia], Pisidia including Lycaonia [Pisidia, Lycaonia, *c.* 373]; Asia, Hellespontus, Insulae. 11. D. Pontus: Bithynia [Bithynia, Honorias], Galatia [i, Gal. ii], Paphlagonia, Helenopontus (=Diospontus), Pontus Polemoniacus, Cappadocia [i, Capp. ii], Armenia meaning Lesser Armenia [Arm. i, Arm. ii, *c.* 385-6]. 12. D. of the East: Isauria, Cilicia [i, Cil. ii], Syria [i, Syr. ii or Salutaris], Augusta Euphratensis, Palaestina [i, Pal. ii], Phoenice [Phoen. Maritima, Phoen. Libani], Arabia (Ar. Augusta Libanensis), Palaestina Salutaris [Pal. iii] (Arabia)[3], Osroene, Mesopotamia, Cyprus. [13. D. Egypt:] Aegyptus Jovia=Aegyptus, Aegyptus Herculia=Augustamnica, Thebais, Libya superior=Cyrenaica, Libya inferior, [Arcadia between the Delta and Thebaid].

[1] In several cases it cannot be determined with certainty at what time in the fourth century provinces were split up (e.g. Raetia, Macedonia, Picenum, Campania et Samnium). In the map I have gone on the assumption that those changes which were made later than the List of Verona (297 A.D.), but cannot be proved subsequently to 350 A.D., were made before that date. The later changes are indicated, so far as possible, by black dotted lines.

[2] In 297 A.D. there seems to have been another African province, Numidia miliciana (? south of Numidia).

[3] The older names of these two provinces, which occur in the List of Verona, are marked in the map; but W. Ohnesorge (Die römische Provinzliste von 297, Th. i, p. 33 *sqq.*) has made it probable that they were called Arabia and Pal. Salutaris in the first half of the fourth century.

There were three *extra-diocesan* Provinces, under proconsuls: *Africa*, *Asia*, and *Achaia*; and the first two were even *extra-praefectural*. Thus strictly the Empire in 395 consisted of thirteen Dioceses and three proconsular Provinces. The proconsul of Asia had control over two other provinces, *Hellespont* and the *Islands*.

The following points deserve to be noted: (1) Mauretania Ting. (or Tingitania, or Tingimauritania) is disjoined from Africa and included in the Spanish Diocese; just as, in the East, Thrace is disjoined from Illyricum and included in the Eastern Prefecture. On the other hand Cyrenaica is severed from Crete and joined to Egypt. (2) The name 'Italy' is extended northward to include Raetia (Eastern Switzerland and Tyrol). The D. Italy consists of two vicariates, the north under the vicar. Italiae[1], the south and islands under the vicar. urbis Romae (as indicated on map). (3) Distinguish the D. Illyricum or Western Illyricum (= D. Pannoniae) from the Prefecture of Illyricum or Eastern Illyricum (= old D. Moesiae). Observe that D. Illyr. and D. Dacia had no vicars, but were directly under the Praet. Prefects of Italy and Illyricum respectively. (4) Observe survivals of nomenclature in Gaul. The Seven Provinces continued to be spoken of as Five (even in the fifth century), having been so grouped before Aquitanica and Narbonensis were subdivided; and, again, when Northern Gaul was added to the government of the vicarius vii provv., he continued to bear that name, though he now governed seventeen Provinces. Thus, say in 400 A.D., Septem Provinciae = Diocese of Gaul; Quinque Provinciae = old Diocese of Vienna.

Our main sources for these changes in provincial geography are: (1) List of Verona, 297 A.D., (2) Breviarium of Festus, 369 A.D., (3) lists in Ammianus, (4) a register of the *Eastern* provinces, before 376 A.D., preserved in Polemius Silvius, (5) Notitia Dignitatum, beginning of fifth century, (6) for Gaul, Notitia Galliarum between 390 and 413 A.D., (7) for later changes in the West before 449 A.D., list of *Western* provinces in Polemius Silvius.

It is important to observe that inferences from ecclesiastical to political geography rest on the fallacious premiss that whenever an Emperor split up a province the Church likewise split up a see. It should not be forgotten that in 408 A.D. Pope Innocent I deprecated the notion that the Church of God should conform itself to every change in secular organization—with special reference to the case of a subdivided province.

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[1] It is probable that North Italy was at first, along with Illyricum, under the direct control of the Praet. Pref. of Italy.

II

EUROPE, 395–527 A.D.

THE BARBARIAN INVASIONS

II.

EUROPE, 395–527 A.D.: THE BARBARIAN INVASIONS.

ON the death of THEODOSIUS THE GREAT, in 395 A.D., the Empire was divided between his sons. ARCADIUS taking the eastern, HONORIUS the western, half. Four Prefectures have now become a fixed territorial division; the realm of Honorius embraces the Prefectures of Gaul and Italy, that of Arcadius the Prefectures of Illyricum and the East. (The Diocese of Western Illyricum belongs to the Prefecture of Italy.) About the same time the invasion of Greece by the Visigoths under ALARIC (396 A.D.) began the series of movements which resulted in the breaking up of the western half of the Empire into German kingdoms—the great historical feature of the fifth century.

I. Invasions of the Barbarians and formation of the German Kingdoms.

1. The Diocese of *Britain* was the first loss sustained by the Empire. In 407 A.D. the tyrant CONSTANTINE crossed into Gaul with the Britannic army, and the Romans never resumed possession of the island, in which the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes soon made abiding settlements.

2. About the same time a mixed band of barbarians crossed the Rhine, ravaged their way through Gaul, and in 409 A.D. entered *Spain*. This band consisted of Vandals, Suevians, and Alans. (*a*) The Vandals were a German people, who, to judge from their proper names, were closely related to the Goths. From their original home between Oder and Vistula they had penetrated southward into the land between the Danube and Theiss (Iazygia), and received settlements in Pannonia from the Emperor Constantine. They were distinguished into two tribes, the Asdings and Silings. The Asdings took up their abode along with (*b*) the Suevians, a Teutonic people of Central Europe, in the north-western regions of Spain, while the Silings occupied Baetica. (*c*) The Alans, a body of adventurers belonging to a race which lived north of the Caucasus, and probably did not belong to the Indo-Germanic family, settled in Lusitania.

This geographical distribution (410–416 A.D.) of the invaders of Spain was changed by the appearance of the Visigoths or West Goths on the scene (see below, § 3). They performed a service to the Empire by delivering Lusitania from the Alans and Baetica from the Silings (417–419 A.D.). But Baetica was hardly rescued before it was occupied by the other Vandal tribe, the Asdings, who had quarrelled with the Suevians. Roman attempts to recover Baetica failed; but in 429 A.D. the Vandals (along with the remnant of the Alans) abandoned Spain and crossed into Africa.

It was formerly held that the name *Andalusia* was a relic of the Vandal lordship in Southern Spain, but strict philology cannot allow the development of *Andalusia* from *Vandalusia*

Throughout this period Eastern Spain, the province of Tarraconensis, had not been occupied by the barbarians, though it was exposed to their depredations; and it remained Roman until the conquest of the Visigoths in 456. The Suevian kingdom was firmly established in Gallaecia, and probably extended into Lusitania.

The condition of Spain at this time (429–456 is very obscure; but it would seem that Suevian settlements were made in Baetica, though the important towns were in Roman hands.

3. *Aquitania*. The Visigothic invasions of Italy (400–402 and 408–412 A.D.), like the Visigothic invasion of Greece, led to no geographical changes. But having left Italy the Visigoths advanced to the Pyrenees, and, in the north-east corner of Spain, Barcino (Barcelona) was the capital of their *First Kingdom* in the West (413–419 A.D.). Having fought successfully in Southern Spain against the Vandals and Alans, they received from the Roman Emperor Honorius a large territory in South-West Gaul, consisting of Aquitania II, the northern part of Narbonensis, part of Novempopulana. The town of Narbo Martius was expressly reserved. Thus was formed the *Second Visigothic Kingdom*, with Tolosa as its chief city. It was within, recognized by, and tributary to, the Empire; so that *theoretically* Gaul was still entirely Imperial. The Visigoths gradually extended the boundaries of their kingdom—in the north, to the Loire—during the following years. The decline of the power of the Empire enabled them to conquer Spain in 456; so that by 460 their realm extended from the Loire to the Straits of Gades, with the exception of the Suevian kingdom. This was the *Third* phase of the *Visigothic Kingdom*, having Toletum as its chief city. The lands of Arverni were ceded by the Empire in 475; and *Provincia* (see below, § 6) became Visigothic between 481 and 489; so that in 490 the Visigothic kingdom reached its widest extent. But in hardly more than half a century it was cut short in the north. The result of a war with the Franks (507–510 A.D.) was that the lands between the Loire and the Garonne—the greater part of Visigothic Gaul—were lost to the Visigoths, and became part of the Frankish kingdom.

4. *Africa* was invaded by the Vandals under Gaiseric in 429 A.D., and their conquest was rapid. In 435 A.D. the Imperial government adopted the same policy which had been adopted in the case of the Visigoths, and recognized a tributary Vandal kingdom in the Diocese of Africa. A compact was made by which the province of *Africa* (with the exception of Carthage herself), *Byzacena*, and part of *Numidia*, were ceded to the invaders. But this arrangement did not last long. In 439 Carthage was taken by the Vandals, and the loss of Roman dominion in Africa followed.

The kingdom of the Vandals soon became insular as well as continental; they followed in the steps of their Phoenician predecessors. Before 468 A.D. *Sardinia*, *Corsica*, and the *Balearic Islands* were conquered, and a foothold was secured in the Phoenician corner of Sicily at *Lilybaeum* (an attempt to take Panormus failed). *Sardinia* was recovered for the Empire in 468 A.D., but before 484 A.D. was reconquered by the Vandals.

Western Mauretania was not included in the Vandal realm; it was left to the Moors. It is worth noticing that the usual idea that the Vandals crossed into Africa by the Straits of Gades must be false; they were not likely to undertake a long, laborious, and unprofitable journey through Mauretania. They must have sailed to Caesarea, or somewhere in the neighbourhood.

5. The Huns (Asiatic nomads belonging to the Turkish family), whose previous history is unknown, came into prominence at the beginning of the fifth century. Having made a settlement in the regions of the river Theiss, they extended

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their sway, east and west, over many Teutonic and non-Teutonic peoples; and at length under ATTILA a Hunnic Empire was formed, which united, in various degrees of real and nominal dependence, the inhabitants from the Rhine to the Volga, from the Danube to the Northern Sea. The Illyrian provinces were ravaged by the Huns repeatedly (441, 447); but in 451 the Hunnic power received a decisive check at Maurica in Champagne (Mery-sur-Seine), from the combined forces of the Empire and the Visigoths. An invasion of Northern Italy in the following year is said to have led to the foundation of *Venice* by fugitives before the advance of the barbarians. After Attila's death the Hunnic Empire was dissolved by the revolt of its German vassals; the Huns were defeated and dispersed on the field of Nedao (a river in Pannonia) 454 A.D.

The battle of the Nedao led to considerable changes in the distribution of the barbarians on the Danube frontier. (*a*) The Gēpĭdae (Γήπαιδες), a German people, of the same branch as the Goths and Vandals, occupied Dacia and probably Iazygia. (*b*) The Ostrogoths or East Goths settled in Pannonia. Other German peoples (*c*) Heruls, (*d*) Scyri, (*e*) Rugians, and (*f*) Turcilingi, occupied the countries north of the Middle Danube, but it is impossible to arrange them with certainty on the map. The Alamanni had settled in the northern part of Raetia, and their northern neighbours were the Thuringians.

6. *Italy.* Noricum was exposed (454–476 A.D.) to the ravages of the Rugians and their fellows, and through Noricum they harried Italy. From them the Emperors at Ravenna recruited *foederati*, and under ODOVACAR, a German (of unknown nation), they erected a German kingdom in Italy, compelling the Emperor ROMULUS AUGUSTULUS to resign, 476 A.D. The Empire in the West had, however, not yet passed completely into the power of the Germans; there was still a Western Emperor. JULIUS NEPOS (recognized by the Eastern Emperor ZENO) maintained himself in *Dalmatia*, and was acknowledged in *Provincia* till his murder in 480 A.D.

The *Kingdom of Odovacar* embraced *Italy*, *Raetia*, *Noricum*, and *Sicily* in 476; *Dalmatia* was annexed in 481. Whether *Provincia* was ever actually ruled by him is uncertain; but at an unknown date (after 480) it was ceded by him to the Visigoths. Theoretically, Odovacar acknowledged the supremacy of the Roman Emperor.

The Ostrogoths, who had harried in the Illyrian Prefecture and vexed the government of Leo and Zeno (just as the Visigoths under Alaric had vexed the government of Arcadius), received a mandate from Zeno to recover Italy for the Empire. Under THEODORIC they won Northern Italy in 489; Ravenna fell in 493; and the *Ostrogothic Kingdom* was established.

7. *Sicily* seems to have remained Roman until within a short time of the revolution of Odovacar, with the exception of Lilybaeum, which had been captured by the Vandals. But it seems for a moment to have passed entirely, whether nominally or actually, into the power of the Vandals (perhaps ceded in 475, as Mr. Hodgkin conjectures); for in 476 the Vandals gave it up, on condition of tribute, to Odovacar, with the reserve of the western corner. With Italy it passed into the power of the Ostrogoths, and the Vandals were driven out from the part which they had retained.

8. The *Ostrogothic kingdom*, under Theodoric (493–526), was more extensive than that of Odovacar, for it embraced Pannonia and the western corner of Sicily. In 510, by the battle of Arles, Theodoric won *Provincia* (as far as the Durance), and in 523 (allying himself with the Franks) he won the small remnant of Provincia and part of what is now the Dauphiné from the Burgundians. Besides this, as protector of his grandson Amalaric, he ruled the whole Visigothic realm from 510 to his death (526). Thus during that period a great Gothic kingdom, from Dalmatia to the Atlantic, had preponderant power in the West.

9. *Gaul.* The Salian Franks (who probably represent the old inhabitants of the regions between the Scheld and Lower Rhine—the Batavi and Canninefates—perhaps reinforced by immigrants from the East) occupied Toxandria in the time of Julian, and when conquered retained it, paying tribute to Rome. But fifty years later, at the beginning of the fifth century, the land had ceased seriously to be regarded as Roman, and we find the Salians on both sides of the Scheld. Their king Chlojo extended his sway to the Somme; Cameracum (Cambrai) and Tornacum (Tournai) became residences of the Frank kings (date uncertain, but before 455). For the further growth of the Frank power, see the preface to Plate 32.

Meanwhile the *First Burgundian kingdom* on the Rhine (including Mainz and Worms) had been overthrown by Aetius, and the conquered Burgundians settled in Sapaudia (Savoy), A.D. 437. This *Second Burgundian kingdom* extended westward, at the expense of the Empire, beyond the Rhône. Its capital was Lugdunum.

The small state of the Alans which was formed, by permission of the Empire, round Valentia in 440, was absorbed in the Burgundian kingdom. Provincia, which remained Imperial till the death of Nepos (480), passed within the next ten years to the Visigoths. Thus in 490 the Burgundians had as neighbours the Visigoths in west and south, the Franks in the north, the Ostrogoths, who were conquering Northern Italy, in south-east, and in the north-east the Alamanni, who had occupied the lands formerly held by the Burgundians.

10. *Pannonia*, in which CONSTANTINE THE GREAT had assigned settlements to the Vandals, was ceded by VALENTINIAN III to the Huns, before 448 A.D., and was occupied after the battle of the Nedao by the Ostrogoths (454).

II. The Empire.

In describing the advance of the Germans, the retreat of the Empire has been told by implication. After 480 it consisted only of the Prefectures of Illyricum and the East; after 486 it had not even the nominal dominion over the lands of Syagrius in Gaul. It is only necessary to call attention to two points. (1) From the beginning of the continuous dual Emperorship at the death of Theodosius I to its cessation on the death of Nepos (395–480 A.D.), the Empire was always regarded as a unity (precisely as in the case of Valentinian and Valens, &c.), ruled by a collegium of two or more Emperors. Thus in the interval between the death of Honorius and the accession of Valentinian III, the whole Empire was theoretically ruled by Theodosius II. The unity was expressed in (*a*) the joint edicts and (*b*) the consulship. (2) As a rule, the German kingdoms were established formally as dependent on the Empire, under conditions definitely drawn up. Hence the Imperial government regarded the lost dominions in the West as still part of the Empire, it being only a question of power and opportunity to reassert the Imperial authority. Theoretically Odovacar was dependent on Zeno; theoretically Theodoric reasserted Zeno's authority in Italy.

On the Eastern frontier there were some small shiftings in the reign of Anastasius, but it need only be mentioned that under Justin (518–527) Lazica became dependent on New Rome.

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III

EUROPE, 527–750 A.D.

III

EUROPE, 527–750 A.D.

THE *sixth* century determined which of the Teutonic peoples, settled within the borders of the Roman Empire, were fittest to survive and play a part in mediaeval and modern history. This process was accomplished partly through a revival of the Roman Empire, partly through struggles between the Teutons themselves.

The great feature of the *seventh* century was the rise of the Saracen power and the progress of Saracen conquest, which altered speedily and largely the map of the Roman Empire, and began early in the eighth century to affect the map of Europe. Throughout the whole period another movement, destined to have the most important consequences for political geography, was slowly and silently going on: the occupation of Imperial soil by Slavonic tribes.

I. (527–565 A.D.)

(1) **Partial reconquest of the Western Provinces by the Roman Empire** (533–554 A.D.), under JUSTINIAN I. (*a*) *Northern Africa* was recovered in 533 A.D., and the Vandal kingdom disappeared for ever from the map. (*b*) *Sicily* was reconquered in 535, (*c*) *Dalmatia* in 536, and (*d*) *Italy* in two wars lasting from 536 to 553 A.D., from the Ostrogoths. A *part of* (*e*) *Southern Spain* was won back before 554 A.D. from the Visigoths.

Thus when Justinian died, 565 A.D., the Vandalic and Ostrogothic kingdoms had entirely disappeared, and the Visigothic kingdom had been curtailed. Moreover the Burgundian and Alamannic kingdoms had been politically absorbed by the Franks (see Plate 32). There remained then on what was once Imperial soil the *Visigoths* and *Suevians* in Spain, the *Frank* kingdoms in Gaul, the *Saxon* and *Angle* kingdoms in Britain, the *Lombards* in Pannonia, and in trans-Danubian Dacia the *Gepids*.

(2) **Other changes.** Outside Imperial territory (or, more strictly, in territory which was only Imperial for a few years, more than five centuries before), the Franks had extended their territory beyond the Weser at the expense of the Thuringian kingdom. A partition of Thuringia between the Franks and Saxons was carried out in 531 A.D., the Franks getting the southern and larger share. Francia was also extended along the Danube by the acquisition of Bajovaria as a tributary state (555 A.D.). See the preface to Plate 32.

In Eastern Europe, the Avars, a Tartar people allied to the Huns, have advanced to the neighbourhood of the Danube and begun to menace the Empire.

(3) **Innovations in the provincial geography of the Empire.** (*a*) The territory recovered in Spain (including Corduba, Assidona, Segontia = Gisgonza, Malaca, Basti, Carthago Spartaria, and Hispalis) seems to have been placed under the military command of a *magister militum* (with subordinate dukes); who probably also governed Septem (on the opposite coast), which had never passed out of the Imperial possession. It is uncertain whether Spain at the time depended in any way on the Prefect of Africa. (*b*) The Prefecture of Africa included Corsica and Sardinia, and the Baleares; but was curtailed in the East by the loss of Tripolitana, which was annexed to Egypt. Among a number of minor changes it may be noticed that: (*c*) a new province, *Theodorias*, is cut off from Syria I, on the coast. (*d*) One province, *Paphlagonia*, is formed from the two, Paphlagonia and Honorias; while part of Pontus Polemoniacus is combined with part of Helenopontus, to form a new *Helenopontus*. (*e*) The Eastern part of the diocese of Pontus is (535 A.D.) rearranged, in three Armeniac provinces:

Armenia I = part of old Armenia I together with part of Pontus Polemoniacus.

Armenia II = the rest of old Armenia together with a portion of Helenopontus.

Armenia III = old Armenia II.

(*f*) Besides these there was the newly organized province of *Armenia IV*, beyond the Euphrates (subordinate to the governor of Armenia III). It was formed (536 A.D.) out of the five regions (hitherto under 'satraps' appointed by the Emperor): Sophene, Asthianene, Anzitene, Belabitene, and Sophanene. (*g*) The formation of a maritime government, consisting of *Scythia, Caria*, the *Cyclades*, *Rhodes*, and *Cyprus*, 'the prefecture of the five provinces,' is remarkable. (*h*) The provinces of Pannonia were in the possession of the Lombards, except the southern part, which was still Imperial, and probably retained its name *Savensis*. (*i*) It must also be observed, in view of future changes, that the province of Achaia is also called *Hellas* in the list of provinces drawn up by Hierocles at the beginning of Justinian's reign; and the name *Helladic* is now used to describe the inhabitants of this province[1].

II. (565–600 A.D.)

(1) **Changes in Teutonic Europe.** (*a*) The *Gepid* kingdom disappears from the map in 567 A.D., being destroyed by its neighbours on either side, the Avars and Lombards. The Avars took possession of the territory. (*b*) The *Suevian* kingdom was conquered and incorporated in the West Gothic kingdom in 584 A.D. (*c*) The *Lombards* left Pannonia to the Avars, and invaded Italy, where they settled (see Plate 63). For changes in (*d*) *Britain* and (*e*) *Gaul*, see Plates 16 and 32.

(2) **Losses of the Roman Empire.** (*a*) In Spain, Corduba (572 A.D.), Basti, and Hispalis were lost to the Goths; Assidona lost and recovered. In South-Western Spain there seems to have been a small Suevian principality which was annexed by the Empire (576 A.D.; Joann. Biclar. ad ann.). (*b*) Half of Italy was wrested from the Empire by the Lombards (see Plate 63).

(*c*) The Avar kingdom (including subject Slavs and Gepids) stretched from the lower Danube to the borders of the Lombard and Frank kingdoms; it was a sort of revival of the Hun kingdom of Attila, and a precursor of the Hungarian kingdom. The Illyric and Thracian provinces suffered constantly from Avar invasions; and at the same time the Slavs not only overran the peninsula but made permanent settlements in Moesia, Macedonia, and even in Greece.

[1] For instance, by John Malalas, a sixth-century writer.

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Monembasia, on the coast of Laconia—a place of importance in the Middle Ages—is said to have been founded at this time, as a refuge from the Slavs.

(3) **Gains of the Roman Empire.** CHOSROES II on his accession (591 A.D.) conceded to the Empire Armenia, the region of Taron (near Lake Thospitis), and Arzanene (which had been under Persian rule since 363 A.D.).

(4) **Provincial Geography of the Empire.** (*a*) The Spanish possessions of the Empire, the Balearic isles, and the western extremity of Mauretania, were organized as a province of the Prefecture now called the *Exarchate* of Africa, entitled *Mauretania II* (capital, Septem); while Mauretania Caesariensis and Mauretania Sitifensis were combined to form *Mauretania I.* (*b*) For Italy see Plate 63. (*c*) The *Armeniac* provinces were reorganized by MAURICE:

Maurice's *Armenia I*	= Justinian's	Armenia III.
„ *Armenia II*	= „	Armenia II.
„ *Armenia Magna*	= „	Armenia I.

(Possibly the part of Justinian's Armenia I, which had belonged to Pontus, was made a separate province.) Maurice's *Armenia IV* was Justinian's province, but without Sophanene. This district (with its capital Martyropolis) was included in the new province of *Mesopotamia Superior*, which incorporated Arzanene (the N.E. touched Lake Thospitis, and the S.E. approached Nisibis, which was just outside the Roman frontier). Great Armenia, and the district of Taron (East of Armenia IV), were not constituted provinces.

III. (600–650 A.D.)

(1) **Losses of the Empire in the West.** (*a*) The Imperial possessions of Spain were gradually lost to the Visigoths, and Spain became entirely Visigothic under Suinthila (621–631 A.D.). Septem was retained by the Empire, and with the Balearic isles perhaps still formed the province of Mauretania II. (*b*) In Italy, the Lombards won new territory in the north (see Plate 63).

(2) **Losses of the Empire in the East.** The conquests of the Persians during the first twenty years of the seventh century, including Syria and Egypt, were only temporary. They were recovered before 629 by the victories of Heraclius, but only to be seized for permanent possession by the Saracens. Syria and Palestine were lost 634–636 A.D. (Aradus 650); Egypt 639–641 (Fustāt founded 646). Osroene seems to have been conquered in 639, and perhaps part of Mesopotamia Superior. Persia had been conquered by the Saracens in 636/7.

(3) **Slavs; Slavonic kingdom in Central Europe.** (*a*) The Slavonic settlements in the Illyrian peninsula increase. In the neighbourhood of Thessalonica and in Thessaly we find (first mentioned some years later, but certainly settled by the middle of the seventh century) the tribes of the Drogubites, Sagudates, Belegezetes, Berzetes, Bajunetes. (*b*) An immigration of Slavs from lands between the Elbe and the Vistula into Dalmatia, Upper Moesia, and the adjacent regions is said to have taken place during the reign of Heraclius. Though the evidence is late, it is very probable that the settlements of the Chrobats and Serbs in Croatia and Servia were made about this time. (*c*) But the Slavs who had settled in Pannonia, Bohemia, and Moravia (the Slovenes, Wends, and Czechs) take for a short period a more definite position on the map of Europe than the Southern Slavs, who are nominally subject to the Empire. They are united by a certain Samo into an independent realm between the Avars and Franks. Neither the extent nor the duration of his kingdom is known. The Sorbs acknowledged his sway, and one of his chief fortresses was Wogastisburg (probably on the Eger in Bohemia). He founded the kingdom in 623/4, and it existed in 633/4; then we lose sight of it.

IV. (650–750 A.D.)

(1) **Advance of the Saracens.** (*a*) In the East, Armenia was reduced by the Saracens in 652; Rhodes, invaded in 654, was occupied for some time; Crete was occupied temporarily (between 673 and 685); Cyprus was divided between Empire and Caliphate by the treaty of c. 688 A.D., but it was perhaps entirely Imperial again in the beginning of the eighth century. In Mount Lebanon, Christian outlaws known as *Mardaites* still resisted the Saracens.

(*b*) Mohammadan attempts to wrest Africa from the Empire began in 647; Kairawān was founded in 670; Carthage finally taken in 698. The conquest of Africa led to the conquest of the Visigothic kingdom (711–713 A.D.), and the foundation of the Emirate of Cordova; it included not only Spain but Septimania, reaching as far as the Rhone. Thus Narbo, Arelate, and Nemausus were Mohammadan cities, till about 755, when the Saracens were driven out of Gaul by the Franks.

(2) **Turanian Powers.** (*a*) *Bulgaria.* In the seventh century the power of the Avars declined, and one of the consequences was that the Bulgarians, who seem to have been settled north of the Danube since the end of the fifth century and were subjects of the Khan of the Avars, became independent, and crossing the Danube occupied the provinces between that river and Mount Haemus (c. 679 A.D.). These regions, Lower Moesia and Scythia (= the Dobrudža), were chiefly inhabited by Slavs, and the Turanian conquerors were in the course of time slavonized, so that Bulgaria became a Slavonic kingdom. At first it to some extent acknowledged a suzerainty on the part of the Emperor at Constantinople. A Slavonic tribe, the Severians, defended the Eastern Haemus.

Bulgaria on the Danube must be distinguished from Bulgaria on the Volga and Kama, which at a later period embraced Mohammadanism.

(*b*) Meanwhile another Turanian power was growing in the lands east and north-east of the Euxine—that of the Khazars. Their proper territory was east of the Crimea, but they ultimately extended their sway southward to the Caucasus and northwards over the lands between the Dnieper and Ural.

(3) **Advance of the Slavs.** The Slavonization of the Illyrian peninsula, including Greece, was increasing both in extent and intensity. It is said that in the middle of the eighth century all the land of the Peloponnesus was slavonized (ἐσθλαβώθη) and had become 'barbarous' (Constant. Porph., 'Them.,' ii. p. 53, ed. Bonn); but this statement, while true of the country, could hardly be true of all the towns.

(4) **Provincial Geography of the Empire.** The new organization of the Empire in *Themes* began in the seventh century; but it will be convenient to defer describing it until we meet it more fully developed in the tenth century. (See Plates 71, 72.)

J. B. BURY.

IV

EUROPE IN THE TIME OF CHARLES THE GREAT

IV

EUROPE IN THE TIME OF CHARLES THE GREAT

1. THE central feature of this map—the extension of the Frankish power over *Saxony* and the Wendish and Avar territories eastward, over the greater part of *Italy*, and over the strip of land beyond the Pyrenees known as the *Spanish March*—is more fully shown in the map of the Frankish dominions in Carolingian times (Plate XXXIII). It was the conquest of Saxony which carried the Frankish frontier up to the regions occupied by the Wends, and involved almost of necessity a further advance, if not of conquest, at least of influence; but the authority which the king of the Franks was able to exert over the Abodrites, Wilzians, Sorbs, and Bohemians was limited to occasional acknowledgements of his superiority and to the irregular payment of tribute. No attempt was made until the tenth century to bring these tribes under the administrative system of the kingdom.

Italy, with the overthrow of the Lombard kingdom in 774, fell into two broadly distinguished divisions. The northern part, with the exception of Venetia, which still held to the Emperor at Constantinople, formed the *kingdom of Italy*. Its southern limits, roughly speaking, included what we now know as the Campagna and the Abruzzi. Beyond these lay the Lombard principalities of *Benevento* and *Salerno*, and what remained of the possessions of the East Roman (or Byzantine) Empire, namely the eastern and southern extremities of the peninsula, the lands of Naples, Amalfi, and Gaetà, and the great islands of Sicily and Sardinia. It will be noticed that, with whatever changes in detail, the broad fact of the division of Italy into two entirely separate countries subsisted from the time of CHARLES THE GREAT until the erection of the new Italian kingdom in 1861; and the boundary line remained substantially unaltered, except that the Abruzzi passed from the northern to the southern half in 1140, and thenceforward belonged to the successive kingdoms of Sicily, of Naples, and of the Two Sicilies.

The *Spanish March* is of interest as the nucleus from which the Christian kingdom of Navarre, county of Barcelona, and kingdom of Aragon gradually emerged. Westward of it were the little kingdoms of *Asturia* and *Cantabria*, which were united in 751, and which grew into the kingdoms of Leon (916) and Castile. But all the land south of the Douro was subject to the emīr of Cordova, and, so long as the Omayyad dynasty lasted, the Christians were hardly at all able to enlarge their borders at its expense.

2. The dominion of the *Byzantine Empire*, cut short, as has been mentioned, in the west (see for particulars the preface to Plate LXIII), was also greatly diminished in consequence of the movements of the Slavs and Bulgarians from the north and north-east, and of the Saracen advance from the south-east. The Slavs had forced a wedge running completely through the interior of the Balkān peninsula, and occupied almost the whole of the Peloponnesus; while the Bulgarians were settled in the regions we know as Walachia and Bulgaria. In Asia the Mohammadans had broken the border of Asia Minor, and in the last quarter of the eighth century acquired *Cilicia*. They had also possessed themselves of a large part of *Armenia*, but the Empire was able to make good some of the loss on the coast-line. It was in order to maintain an adequate system of defence that the Emperors gradually placed the civil and military authority in the same hands by the formation of *themes*, many of which will be found indicated in the accompanying map; they were not, however, established in all districts until later (see the preface to Plates LXXI, LXXII).

3. In the north of Europe the three *Scandinavian* kingdoms appear substantially as they have continued ever since; but it is to be observed (*a*) that the south-western corner of Sweden was always an integral part of Denmark down to the seventeenth century, (*b*) that Sweden did not yet extend further north than Upland and Westmanland, and (*c*) that the lands further north and those in the interior running southward along all the west side of Lake Vaenir were in the hands of Finnish tribes. Our map does not extend further north than the latitude of Trondhjem, but the Norwegians possessed the sea-board as far as Moldfjord.

4. From the Norwegian coast-lands eastward, the whole of the northern tracts of Europe were inhabited by Finnish (or Tchudish) races. On the Baltic coast (Livonia and Courland) were Lithuanians, who were surrounded on east, south, and west by various Slavonian tribes, ranging from Lake Ilmen and the upper waters of the Volga as far west as the Elbe and Saale. Southward of the latter were the Avars, whose power was overthrown by CHARLES THE GREAT; next them, beyond the Carpathians, but perhaps separated by various Slavonic tribes, was the great kingdom of the Khazars, from the south-west of which, in the former half of the ninth century, the Magyars issued to occupy first the territory west of the Dnieper and then the lands of the Avars; and finally, beyond the lower reaches of the Volga, were the Patzinaks (Petchinegs).

5. In Asia and Northern Africa the Caliphate of the Omayyads passed in 750 into the hands of the Abbāsids; but five or six years later a grandson of the last Omayyad Caliph succeeded in obtaining recognition in Spain, which thenceforward remained detached from the Eastern Caliphate, though the rulers of Mohammadan Spain did not adopt the title of Caliph until 929. The north coast of Africa also tended more and more towards an independent position: Morocco, indeed, was completely severed from the Caliphate under the schismatic (Shī'ite) Idrīsids; and the Aghlabids in Tunis and Tripoli, while nominally subject to the Abbāsid dynasty, practically exercised sovereign power. For the Abbāsid territories in Asia, see Plate LXXVII.

[This map is based upon that of Dr. Menke.]

EUROPE
in the time of
CHARLES THE GREAT
768-814
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300
Charles's Kingdom in 771
Conquests made by him
Longitude East 10 of Greenwich
OCCIDENTALIS OCEANUS
MARE BALEARICUM
MARE PONTICUM
KINGDOM OF THE ASTURIAS
OMAYYAD EMIRATE OF KURTUBA
KINGDOM OF THE AVARS
BULGARIAN KINGDOM
BYZANTINE EMPIRE
KINGDOM OF THE WENEDONIC OR SLAVANIC RACES
KINGDOM OF THE KHAZARS
Aghlabids
Idrisids
Rustamids
Tarâbulus El-Gharb
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V

EUROPE IN THE TIME OF OTTO THE GREAT

V

EUROPE AT THE TIME OF THE RESTORATION OF THE EMPIRE IN THE WEST BY OTTO THE GREAT, 962.

BEFORE the end of the ninth century the Frankish dominions had split first into three, then definitely into the two countries of the Eastern and Western Franks, which gradually acquired the names of *Germany* and *France*. The kingdoms of *Burgundy* and of *Italy* had fallen away. When OTTO THE GREAT was crowned Emperor at Rome on February 2, 962, he made no claim to rule more than Germany, over which he had laboriously established his sovereignty, and Italy, which he had conquered in 951. But the Germany of which he was king had altered considerably in the course of the two generations which followed the disruption of the Carolingian Empire. The district between the Reuss and the Aar, which in 888 was attached to Germany, in 922 became Burgundian. In other respects the territorial changes of Germany were all to her advantage. On the western border *Lotharingia* had been united to the German kingdom by HENRY THE SAXON (919–936), and both he and his son Otto the Great had won extensive territories eastward by conquest over the Wends, as the Germans called the Slavonian races on their eastern border. Otto was also acknowledged as overlord by the *Bohemian* duke, on whom from 955 *Moravia* became a dependency.

The kingdom of the Avars, destroyed by CHARLES THE GREAT, was to a large extent occupied, from the second half of the ninth century, by another oriental folk, the Ugrian Magyars, whose incursions were for many years a continual terror to western Europe; but their great defeat by Otto in 955 reduced them to a comparatively peaceable settlement on the lands which they held in Pannonia and which were known after them as *Ungaria* or *Hungary*[1], leaving a debatable district, the East March of Bavaria or *Ostarrichi* (*Austria*), between them and Germany. North of them the Chrobats of the upper Vistula (to be carefully distinguished from their southern namesakes, the Chrobats or Croats, between the Save and the Adriatic Sea) owned the German king as their lord; and the Poles made submission to him in (or not long after) 963, but probably in respect only of their more westerly lands: in the following half-century their dominions increased rapidly. Beyond them were the Lithuanian Prussians and Letts on the Baltic.

The Scandinavian nations were expanding chiefly by means of emigration, but in the interior *Sweden* was advancing against the Finns and now occupied the region north of Lake Vaenir. Outside the limits of the map, *Iceland*, which had been settled by Irish monks from the end of the eighth century, was not regularly colonized until the movement from *Norway*, which went on steadily from the second half of the ninth century, and founded settlements also in the Faerey, Shetland, and Orkney islands, as well as on other islands and river-openings on the coasts of the British islands. *Denmark* was reduced for a while to the boundary which Otto the Great had restored, but not long after his death gained *Sleswick* once more. Towards the middle of the tenth century the Danes established a port, *Jumne* or *Jomsburg*, on the mouth of the Oder, which continued for near a century a famous centre for Viking enterprises. From *Sweden* issued a more fruitful expedition in that of the Varangians or Russians, who in the second half of the ninth century sailed up the Gulf of Finland and founded a state of which the capital was first *Novgorod* and then *Kiev* (863). The peoples over whom they ruled were in the northern districts chiefly of Finnish or Tchudish origin, but further south they found themselves in the midst of a Slavonian population, whose language and civilization they soon appropriated. Passing onwards, the Varangians pressed by degrees into the Khazar territory almost to the Caucasus, leaving the Khazars only part of the Crim peninsula and the regions bordering on the Caspian; and in 988 they conquered Cherson from the Byzantine Emperor. The track by which they penetrated through the continent and reached the Black Sea, and even assailed Constantinople (in 866), is indicated on the map by a red line.

In the *Spanish* peninsula the kingdom of *Leon* had grown out of that of the Asturias and had gained ground to the south-east. On its eastern border, however, it had lost somewhat, as the southern Gascons secured their independence of the West Frankish power and formed the kingdom of *Navarre*, with its capital at Pamplona. The lordship of *Aragon* did not become a kingdom until 1035, and the county of *Barcelona* was still feudally dependent upon the kingdom of France. The rest of the peninsula was ruled by the Omayyad caliph, who had made himself master also of the *Balearic Islands*. The Omayyad power lasted until 1016.

Of the two *Burgundian* kingdoms which arose towards the end of the ninth century, the Upper had already lost to France the county of *Mâcon* in 910, but gained from Germany the *Aargau* in 922. The northernmost city of this district, Basle, was however annexed by HENRY II in 1006. In 928 the Lower kingdom gave up to France the districts of Lyons west of the Rhône as well as those of Vivarais and Uzès. The Saône and the Rhône thus came to form the boundary between France and the two Burgundies. The two kingdoms were united in 933, and so continued until they passed to the Empire on the death of King RUDOLF III in 1032. Towards the end of the ninth century the Saracens of Spain had established a fortified outpost at Fraxinetum (Garde-Fraînet)

[1] The aspirate in this word seems traceable to an imaginary connexion between the Ungarii and the Huns, for which there is no historical foundation.

SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY
about the Year 1000
English Miles
Christians
Heathens
Mohammadans
EUROPE
at the time of the
RESTORATION OF THE EMPIRE
in the West
BY OTTO THE GREAT
962.
English Miles.
K. Kingdom M. March
D. Duchy
Fortresses
Monasteries
Longitude East 10 of Greenwich
Long. E. 20 of Greenw.
Oxford: Clarendon Press
W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh

on the southern coast, whence they were able to make frequent plundering raids into the Alpine regions and other parts of the interior.

The kingdom of *Italy* shows little change as compared with the time of Charles the Great, except that it now runs further south on the Adriatic coast and includes the whole of the Abruzzi. Outside the limits of the kingdom, the Byzantine Empire has recovered a long strip of territory on the east (the *Longobardic* theme) and the whole southern extremity (the theme of *Calabria*); but *Sicily* is now in the hands of the Saracen Fātimids. The Saracens had also obtained a footing further north at the mouth of the Garigliano, but they had lost it in 916.

The westward movement of the Magyars had left room for the Patzinaks (or Petchinegs) to take possession of the northern bank of the lower Danube, as far as the Carpathians; *Transylvania* being disputed territory between the two races.

The particulars of the gains and losses of the *Byzantine Empire* during the ninth and tenth centuries will be found in the preface to Plates LXXI, LXXII. By the date of the present map it had recovered *Crete* and *Cyprus* from the Saracens; but on the mainland it had lost the inland districts of *Macedonia* and *Epirus* to the Bulgarians, who also held the overlordship of the neighbouring Slavonic land of *Servia*. In 971 it regained the eastern part of Bulgaria, but was not able to conquer the rest until 1018. In the second half of the tenth century it also recovered *Cilicia* and *Northern Syria* from the Hamdānids. This dynasty (from 904), with the Buwaihids in *Mesopotamia* and *Persia* (from 932), and the Ikhshīdids in *Southern Syria* and *Egypt* (from 935), divided the dominions of the Abbāsid caliph and left him but a small territory surrounding the city of Baghdād. But the Fātimids, whose power began in *Barbary* in 909, succeeded in ousting the Ikhshīdids from Egypt in 969, where they maintained their rule until 1171. (See the preface to Plate LXXVIII.)

On the confines between the Byzantine and the Mohammadan territories lay the Christian State of *Armenia*, which, with enlarged boundaries running north to the Caucasus, and a capital at Ani, rose into a kingdom in 885, but was surrendered to the Emperor CONSTANTINE MONOMACHUS in 1045, the principality of *Kars* following its example in 1064.

The small map indicates the expansion of Christianity about the year 1000. The date is chosen as that of the establishment of the archbishopric of Gniezno (Gnesen) for the mission among the Poles, which corresponds closely with the time of chief activity in the conversion of Hungary under King VAIK (ST. STEPHEN), who succeeded to the throne in 995.

The main map is based upon that of Dr. Menke (Spruner, No. 4); the small one upon that of Droysen (p. 23).

VI

EUROPE AT THE TIME OF THE THIRD CRUSADE

1190

EUROPE

at the time of the

THIRD CRUSADE

1190

English Miles

100 50 0 100 200 300

C. Comitatus, County, Grafschaft
D. Ducatus, Duchy, Herzogthum
K. Kingdom
Pr. Principatus, Princedom, Fürstthum
Fortresses

Longitude East 10 of Greenwich

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VI

EUROPE AT THE TIME OF THE THIRD CRUSADE

1190

THE *Imperial* boundaries to the north and east underwent no very material permanent changes in the period that intervened between the reigns of OTTO THE GREAT and FREDERICK BARBAROSSA. The island of *Rügen* with a strip of the coast facing it passed into the possession of Denmark. A portion of *Pomerania* became a German duchy, but the greater part of it was attached to Poland, the border districts between the two remaining constantly debatable. *Silesia*, which had long fluctuated between Bohemia and Poland, acquired a sort of independence from the latter in 1163. Thenceforward Lower Silesia became more and more German, while Upper Silesia tended towards assimilation to Bohemia. *Bohemia* and *Moravia* were in 1003 both annexed by Poland, the former only for one year, the latter until 1029. Moravia also lost in the eleventh century the districts south-eastward of the River March and the Little Carpathians to Hungary. In *Italy* a large part of the Duchy of *Benevento* was absorbed into the young and vigorous Kingdom of Sicily. *Venice* was already increasing her dominions both on the mainland and in the islands of the Adriatic Sea. The union in 1032 of the Kingdom of *Burgundy* or *Arles* (*Arelate*) with the Empire added to those of Germany, Lombardy, and Rome a fourth crown to the imperial dignity; but no territorial change resulted.

Beyond the confines of the Empire *Norway* and *Sweden* were extending their possessions northward. The *Russian* territories had grown considerably in all directions, at the expense of the Finns, the Khazars, the Poles, and the Lithuanians. *Hungary* had not only acquired (as has been mentioned) a strip of Moravia, but had consolidated a large territory in Croatia, Bosnia, and Dalmatia. It was thus becoming an Adriatic power. While *Servia* lost part of her dominions to the north-west, she had now gained a stretch of sea-board fronting Apulia. The great *Bulgarian* Kingdom, which had extended into Macedonia and Epirus, was now confined to the lands between the River Danube and the Balkans.

The losses of the *Byzantine* Empire during the interval between this and the preceding map were momentous. True, it had recovered much ground from Bulgaria, and it still possessed the southern seaboard of the Crimea. But it had lost to the Selǧuk Turks all the eastern part of Asia Minor, retaining only the northern and southern Armenias. The Normans had deprived it of every vestige of dominion in Italy and Sicily, and its insular possessions in the Adriatic were gradually passing to Venice. Within a few years of the date of the map the whole of the European dominions of this Empire, almost all the islands, and a portion of Asia Minor, were for two generations divided among the conquerors of the Fourth Crusade.

The Latin Kingdom of *Jerusalem* and the Principalities connected with it are the subject of Plate LXXVI; the present map shows only the remains of the Christian settlements which survived at the date of the Third Crusade after the rapid and decisive attacks of Saladin the Ayyūbid. Saladin had also supplanted the Fātimids in Egypt and possessed a large tract of territory on the coast of Africa further west. Beyond these lands the seaboard was under the domination of the Almohads (Muwahhids), who had overthrown the dynasty of the Almoravids (Al-Murābitīn) both in Africa and southern Spain between 1144 and 1158.

The Mohammadan power in the Spanish peninsula was declining. In the tenth century there were but two Christian kingdoms there, *Navarre* and *Leon*, and their southern limits did not far overpass the lines of the Douro and the upper Ebro. In the eleventh the disruption of the Omayyad Caliphate in 1028 made the Christian advance easier, and this was not permanently arrested by the irruption of the Almoravids. Navarre indeed was deprived of the means of expansion southward by the growth of *Aragon* and *Castile*, both of which arose mainly out of the broken-up kingdom of SANCHO THE GREAT of Navarre (d. 1035), and whose frontiers joined one another a little to the south of the Ebro. Aragon and Navarre came under the rule of a single king from 1076 to 1134. In 1137 the former was united with the County of Barcelona, which had previously owed fealty to the king of France, and before long its territory was extended far beyond the Ebro. After the death of Sancho the Great, Castile was for a time united with Leon, then separated, and then in 1135 again united under ALFONSO THE EMPEROR. In 1157 the two kingdoms were once more divided, and remained so until their final union in 1230. In 1085 Castile had conquered Toledo: its defeat at Zalacca in the following year was followed by a long period of inactivity; but towards the middle of the twelfth century the advance was renewed, and continued as far as the line of the Sierra Morena. The County of *Portugal* between the Minho and Douro emerges in 1094; it became a kingdom in 1139, and its position in great measure blocked Leon from the possibility of further growth. Lisbon was reached in 1148, and in 1191 the Portuguese dominions for a short time extended as far as the south coast of Algarve. The Almohads indeed forced back the frontier both of Portugal and Castile; but after their great overthrow at Navas de Tolosa, in 1212, the Christian advance was rapid and unbroken (see the preface to Plate LX).

The Kingdom of *France*, though theoretically comprising the whole of the territories enclosed within the coloured border, all of which owed fealty to the king, was practically deprived of much more than a half of the country, since all the districts westward of the red line marked in the map were held by the king of England. The recovery of *Normandy* (excepting the Channel Isles), *Maine*, *Anjou*, and *Touraine* was the work of PHILIP AUGUSTUS in 1202–1205. In 1259 these fiefs, together with *Poitou*, were formally surrendered by HENRY III; and *Guienne* (*Aquitaine* and *Gascony*) alone remained in English hands (see Plate LV).

This map is based upon that by Friedrich Keinz in Spruner's Atlas.

VII

EUROPE IN 1360

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY
LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE

VII

EUROPE IN 1360

THE date 1360 has been chosen as suitable for giving a general idea of Europe in the fourteenth century, not only because in English and French history it is marked by the important Treaty of Brétigny, but because in the rest of the continent it shows the states in their normal condition. If the date selected had been a few years earlier, South-Eastern Europe would have been shown in the unusual condition of unity to which it was reduced by STEPHEN DUSHAN, who, either as direct ruler or as suzerain, controlled not only his native Servia, but also Bulgaria, Albania, much of Northern Greece, and the larger part of the Byzantine Empire (1346–55). If, on the other hand, the map had been made to represent the state of things a few years later than 1360, it would have exhibited Central Europe in the very abnormal state to which it was brought by LEWIS THE GREAT of Hungary, who in his elder years was possessed not only of the Magyar Kingdom, but of Poland, Dalmatia, Bosnia, Western Bulgaria, and the greater part of Wallachia (1365–82). These two short-lived empires left so little mark behind them that it seemed well to choose a time when neither of them was complicating the political map of Europe.

In the *British Isles* the treaty of 1357 had just put an end to the long struggle between the Plantagenets and the house of Bruce. DAVID II has just surrendered the Scottish claim on Berwick, which is now permanently annexed to England; but he retains the rest of the lands which had belonged to JOHN BALLIOL before the outbreak of the great war in 1295. The Isle of Man, however, which had become a fief of Scotland in 1264, remained with the English. Orkney and Shetland were still Danish, and continued so till 1468.

France in 1360 is smaller than she had been for the last hundred years, owing to the reconstitution of the old Duchy of *Aquitaine* by the Treaty of Brétigny. EDWARD III now rules it as an independent state, and all French claims of suzerainty over it have been formally withdrawn. The duchy of 1360 is not quite so large as the original inheritance of Queen Eleanor, since it does not comprise Auvergne, La Marche, and one or two smaller regions. England is also in possession, in the north, of the County of *Guisnes*, and the town of *Calais*, conquered in 1347. She is likewise holding *Ponthieu*, which had descended to Edward III from his grandmother, Eleanor of Castile, who was countess of the district in her own right; it had been overrun by the French many years before, and was only recovered by the Treaty of Brétigny. Meanwhile the loss of Aquitaine, which is to be but temporary, is partly compensated by the first advance of France to the south-east, across the Rhône. The last Dauphin of the *Viennois* had ceded his states to France in 1349, and the Counts of *Die* and *Valence* had acknowledged the French suzerainty somewhat earlier. Thus the French border for the first time touches the Alps.

In the *Iberian Peninsula* boundaries have varied very little since the expulsion of the Moors from Andalusia in the years between 1250 and 1280. The only surviving Muslim state is *Granada*, which has lately been stripped of its westernmost stronghold, Gibraltar (1344), but is destined to survive without much further loss of territory till the end of the fifteenth century.

Aragon is no longer a purely Iberian power, having acquired a large transmarine possession, the island of *Sardinia*, by a long war commencing in 1309. The island of *Sicily* had also been hers from 1282 to 1285, but had been granted away by King PETER III to his second son JAMES, and younger branches of the Aragonese house ruled in Sicily from 1285 to 1409, when the kingdom was again incorporated with the dominions of the elder line.

In *Italy*, the kingdom of Naples (*Sicilia citra Pharum*) has been permanently separated from the insular half of the old Norman kingdom since 1285. On the other hand its present Angevin rulers have several important outlying possessions—their original County of *Provence* in the west, and in the east the Duchy of *Durazzo* and the island of *Corfu*. Durazzo was held from 1322 to 1360; its boundaries were always shifting, and in 1360 it was on the eve of falling into the hands of the princes of Albania, who were always at war with the Neapolitan house. Corfu was destined to fall into the hands of Venice in 1386. In Northern Italy the Venetians have lately obtained a broad foothold on the continent by the annexation of Treviso (1339), but are not destined to overrun the neighbouring lordships of the Carraras of Padua and the Della Scalas of Verona till another generation has gone by (1405). The VISCONTI have made Milan by far the most powerful of the Italian states: though not yet arrived at the wide territorial expansion which they reached under the great GIAN GALEAZZO (1385–1402), they are already in possession of a broad tract on both sides of the Po, from Vercelli to Brescia, and from Alessandria to Parma. But Bologna, which they had held from 1350

EUROPE
IN 1360

English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300

Explanation

Within the Empire
- Territories of the Ho. of Wittelsbach
- Habsburg
- Luxemburg

Note. The Boundary of the Holy Roman Empire is shown by a deep red line.

Longitude East 10 of Greenwich

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to 1360, had just been taken by Cardinal Albornoz and restored to its former dependence on the Pope.

In the *Empire* three great families dispute the Imperial crown and the predominance in Germany. All three are at this moment enfeebled by the fact that their territories are divided among several members of the house. The reigning family in 1360 is that of Luxemburg. The Emperor CHARLES IV is in possession of Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia (the last ceded by Poland in 1355). His younger brother WENZEL holds the ancestral County of Luxemburg, and with it the much more important Duchy of Brabant, acquired by his marriage with its heiress Joanna. This pair being childless, Brabant passed away from the Luxemburgs in 1383. The house of Wittelsbach comes next in importance. Its widely scattered territories are in the hands of four separate princes. (1) The Elector ROBERT I holds the Palatinate, while of the three sons of the Emperor LEWIS the Bavarian (*ob.* 1347) (2) STEPHEN has the Duchy of Bavaria, (3) LEWIS, the Electorate of Brandenburg (*ob.* 1365), and (4) ALBERT, the Counties of Holland and Hainault. The house of Habsburg is the third of the great German families. Its large dominions in Southern Germany are held in common by four brothers, RUDOLF, ALBERT, FREDERIC, and LEOPOLD. But after the deaths of the first and third of these princes the survivors divided the heritage (1365), Albert taking Austria, while Leopold had the Tyrol and the Suabian and Alsatian lands of the family.

The *Swiss Confederacy* has begun to appear; its first victory had been won at Morgarten as early as 1315, but its firm foundation only dates from the slaying of Leopold of Habsburg, whom we have just mentioned, at Sempach in 1386.

Looking at the external boundaries of the Empire, we see that it has shrunk to the west and south, but gained ground towards the east. In the first-named direction it has seen Tournay (1320) and Dauphiné (1349) fall into the hands of France, while the Venetian conquests of Istria and Treviso are also withdrawn from the Imperial suzerainty. On the other hand, Silesia has been definitely torn from Poland, and united with the Bohemian kingdom and therefore with the Empire (1355). Denmark narrowly escaped the same fate in the middle of the century, when the Holstein Counts nearly succeeded in partitioning the Danish monarchy; but by the final settlement with WALDEMAR III they retired across the Eider (1358).

On the eastern border of the Empire the Teutonic Knights, and their neighbours the Knights of the Sword in *Livonia*, are almost at the height of their power. They have taken *Pomerelia* (1303–43) and *Kulm* (1343) from Poland, though an attempt to annex Cujavia and Dobrzyn has failed. The Danes also have lost their hold on Esthonia, which has passed to the military order (1346). But the Poles and Lithuanians are destined to take their revenge in 1410, when after the battle of Tannenberg they cut short the borders of the Knights.

In *Scandinavia* the three kingdoms are in 1360 in their normal condition, Denmark having just succeeded in reconstituting herself and winning back her traditional boundaries under the able WALDEMAR III (1347–75), who has just recovered from Sweden Bleking, Scania, and Halland (1360), and driven the Holstein Counts out of Jutland and the Isles (1344–58). The three kingdoms of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark are shortly destined to be united under the celebrated Queen MARGARET (1387–1412), daughter of WALDEMAR of Denmark, and wife of HACON of Norway, the son of MAGNUS SMEK of Sweden. The marriage which was to lead to this union took place in 1359.

Russia is dominated by the Tartars of the Golden Horde, and under their suzerainty a crowd of princes divided the land. The titular primacy in 1360 was held by DEMETRIUS, ruler of Suzdal (1359–62), but the Duchy of Moscow, which is destined to absorb all the rest, has been in existence since 1303, and has already begun to extend its borders. Its approximate extent in 1360 is shown by an orange line. The Golden Horde had been ruled by the house of Batu from 1224 to 1359, when anarchy and civil war set in for a space. Toktamish, a chief of the White Horde, ultimately restored order (1376–91); but on his fall the great empire that he ruled was shortly destined to break up into three or four smaller hordes, known later as the Khanates of Kazan, Astrakhan, Krim, and Sibir.

The main change in the aspect of Eastern Europe has been caused by the rise of *Lithuania*, which in 1360 forms an enormous state extending from the mouth of the Memel to the Black Sea. It has mainly grown at the expense of the Western Russian states, and is destined to extend itself even further, as Smolensk is soon to fall into its power (*c.* 1394). Its last conquest is the realm of Halicz (Galicia), which was divided between Poland and Lithuania about the year 1340. The hold of the princes of Lithuania over the extreme southern border of this dominion, in the direction of Perekop and the Black Sea, is very weak, wars with the Golden Horde being incessant and the boundaries very fluctuating.

Poland has lost Pomerelia and Kulm to the Teutonic Knights (1308–43) and Silesia to Bohemia (1355), but on the other hand has advanced eastward by the conquests of CASIMIR IV, who took Podlachia from the Jatvings and annexed the western half of the Russian state of Halicz.

Hungary is under LEWIS THE GREAT (1342–82), an able monarch who extended her boundaries far to the east and south. In 1360 he has already taken Northern Bosnia from the Servians (1359), and part of Dalmatia from Venice (1356). Shortly after the date of the map, he made much greater conquests, annexing Northern Servia (the so-called 'Banate of Szeremseg') from the successors of Stephen Dushan (1365), Western Bulgaria (the Banate of Widdin) (1365–9), and Western Wallachia (the Banate of Severin) (1368). The rest of Wallachia and Moldavia did him homage. These two principalities first appear as Christian states in the fourteenth century (*c.* 1341), the Tartars having retired from the land between the Danube and the Pruth. Finally the rest of Dalmatia was torn from Venice in 1381, at the Peace of Turin.

The *Balkan Peninsula* is in 1360 still in the state of chaos into which it had been plunged by the death of the great Servian conqueror STEPHEN DUSHAN in 1355. His son UROSH (1355–67) only retained a nominal supremacy over the empire of his father, of which the greater part fell away immediately on Stephen's decease. Bulgaria is once more independent, and Northern Albania has also won back its freedom. Urosh had some real power in Servia proper and Macedonia, but in Bosnia, Thessaly, and Southern Epirus other Servian princes had made themselves independent of him. At Arta, THOMAS PRELUBOS ruled over Southern

Albania (Epirus) and Acarnania, while SIMEON (the brother of Stephen Dushan) governed Thessaly, or at least the greater part of it, for the Byzantines had a small foothold about Zeitoun of fluctuating extent. This Servian kingdom of Thessaly lasted down to the Turkish conquest and had an existence of nearly forty years (1355–93). Bosnia is also in existence as a separate state, but only extends over the districts of Rama and Chlumia, the Hungarians holding its northern borders.

The *Eastern Empire* still survives at Constantinople, but since the conquests of Stephen Dushan it has lost the bulk of its dominions in Europe. Only Thrace, Thessalonica with the Macedonian coast, and Eastern Peloponnesus (the Despotate of the Morea) now owe allegiance to John Palaeologus. Bithynia, the last province held by the empire in Asia, had been lost to the Ottoman Turks between 1320 and 1338. The only survivals of the Byzantine dominion beyond the Straits are the isle of Lesbos and the isolated town of Philadelphia which did not surrender till the year 1374.

There is yet one more group of native states to catalogue in the Balkan Peninsula. The Albanians of the north have freed themselves from the Servian yoke, and several of their chiefs are reigning in complete independence. The most important line was the house of Thopia, which in 1360 drove out the Neapolitans from Durazzo and annexed that duchy.

Of the *Latin States* of the Levant the Duchy of Athens, the Principality of Achaia, and the Duchy of Naxos, all dating back to the Crusade of 1204, are still in existence. Chios is in the hands of the Genoese Maona since 1346: the knights of St. John have held Rhodes, Cos, and other neighbouring isles since 1310. Venice is in possession of Crete, Euboea, and certain outlying ports in Peloponnesus. Lastly, a new dynasty, the Beneventan house of Tocco, have been holding the central Ionian Isles, under the title of the County of Cephalonia, since 1357: they are soon to encroach on to the mainland and conquer Epirus from the heirs of the Servian Thomas Prelubos (1394–1405). In *Western Asia* there are three Christian states still surviving: the Latin kingdom of Cyprus has been in the hands of the Lusignans since Richard Cœur de Lion gave it to them in 1191. The kingdom of Little Armenia (Cilicia) is at the end of its career; in 1375 it is to fall under the control of the Memlūk Sultans of Egypt and Syria. Lastly, the Comneni of Trebizond still maintain their independence along the south-eastern coast of the Black Sea.

In *Asia Minor* the Seljūk Empire had gone to pieces about the year 1300, and the tribal chiefs who had formerly obeyed the Sultan of Rūm are now independent princes. Of the ten states thus established that of the Ottoman Turks is already in 1360 the most important. MURAD I, the third prince of the house of OTHMAN, has just ascended the throne: he rules Northern Phrygia, Bithynia (conquered from the Byzantines 1320–38), and Mysia or the Emirate of Karasi, taken from a Turkish neighbour in 1335. The Ottomans have just (1357) secured a foothold in Europe by seizing Gallipoli and the Thracian Chersonese, from which they are about to sally forth bent on the conquest of the whole Balkan Peninsula. The other Seljūk emirates are eight in number: Karaman is the largest and most important, the others are Sarukhan, Menteshe, Tekke, Kermian, Hamid, Aidin, and Kastamuni. Eastward of the Seljūks a dynast named MOHAMMAD ARTIN is in 1360 ruling at Erzingan over the valley of the Upper Euphrates. But in 1361 his dominions fell into the hands of his neighbour ALA-ED-DIN, Emir of Karaman.

The Memluk Sultans of the Bahri dynasty hold Egypt, Syria, and the African coast as far as Barka. Beyond them, to the west the house of the Hafsids (1228–1534) are still reigning in Tunis and Tripoli. The less long-lived family of the Ziyānids (1235–1393) are nearing the end of their career in Algeria. Lastly, the Marīnids of Morocco (1269–1470) fill the westernmost corner of the map.

The greatest power in the lands beyond the Euphrates in 1360 was the house of the Jalayrs (1336–1411). OWAYS, the second prince of the family, is now on the throne: he has just added to his father's realm in Irak the whole of Adharbaigan and part of Kurdistan (1358). A few years later he conquered Mōsil, Diyārbekr, and the greater part of Mesopotamia from his neighbours the Karā-kuyunli Turkomans (1365). Greater Armenia, part of Kurdistan, and Mesopotamia were in 1360 in the hands of the two Turkoman tribes of the 'Black' and 'White Sheep' (Karā-kuyunli and Āk-kuyunli). The former was at this time predominant, the White Sheep only coming to the front with the great Uzun Hassan in 1469.

Lastly, to the north of the Karā-kuyunli, and pressed in between them and the Golden Horde, the Christian kingdom of *Georgia* preserves a precarious existence under the southern edge of the Caucasus.

C. OMAN.

VIII

EUROPE AT THE ACCESSION OF THE EMPEROR CHARLES V, 1519

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VIII

EUROPE AT THE ACCESSION OF THE EMPEROR CHARLES V, 1519

THE two main features to be observed in this map are the enormous accumulations of territory which have just passed into the hands of the young Emperor Charles V, and the astounding advance of the Ottoman Turks alike in Europe, Africa, and Asia since the date of the preceding map. These two empires are destined within a few years to come into violent collision both by sea and land. By conquering Hungary in the East (1526) and Algiers and Tunis in the West (1517–34), the Sultan Soliman became the immediate neighbour of the Emperor. Their struggle was fought out on the whole front that lies between the Carpathians and the Straits of Gibraltar, and it forms by far the most important feature of the sixteenth century. The interminable wars of France and the Empire, though they fill a larger space in the pages of history, are of much less real importance than the contest of the House of Habsburg and the House of Othmān for the supremacy of the Mediterranean and the valley of the Danube. If a series of dynastic alliances had not chanced to put Charles V at the head of the most powerful monarchy that had been seen in Europe since the days of his namesake, Charles the Great, it is hard to see how the advance of the Turks into the heart of Europe could have been stayed.

The dominions which Charles possessed in 1519 fall into four divisions:—

1. By his recent election he possessed the nominal headship of the *Holy Roman Empire*; he drew more strength from this position than any of his recent predecessors, but it was from his patrimonial estates that his real power proceeded.

2. As heir to his grandfather Maximilian he ruled the ancient Habsburg inheritance, which had changed very little since 1360, and still consisted of *Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Tyrol*, and '*Vorder-Oesterreich*,' i.e. the detached territories on the Rhine, the Upper Danube, and the Lake of Constance, such as the Breisgau, the Alsatian Sundgau, and the Swabian Landvogtei. The county of *Görz* had been added in 1509, and the only loss suffered by the Habsburgs of late years has been the conquest of their scattered dominions south of the Upper Rhine by the Swiss Confederates in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries.

3. As heir of his grandmother Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold, the young emperor possessed the greater part of the dominion of the House of Burgundy, viz. the '*Franche-Comté*' of Burgundy, and the accumulation of counties and duchies in the Netherlands formed by *Flanders*, *Artois*, *Hainault*, *Namur*, *Luxemburg*, *Brabant*, *Limburg*, and *Holland*. Of the Burgundian inheritance, the French Duchy of Burgundy and the county of Nevers, together with the Somme Towns, had been seized by Louis XI of France and were still in the hands of his successor Francis I (see Plate XXXVI).

4. As representing his mother Juana of Castile, Charles V ruled not only the kingdoms of *Castile* and *Aragon*, and the latter's old dependencies of *Sardinia* and *Sicily*, but the conquests made of late years by Ferdinand and Isabella, viz. *Granada* taken from the Moors (1492), the greater part of *Navarre* (annexed in 1512), *Naples* (taken from the French in 1504), and a number of forts on the north coast of Africa (occupied between 1496 and 1516 in spite of the resistance of the feeble Hafsid and Watasid dynasties). Among these were Melilla, Oran, Marsalquiver, Peñon de Alger (dominating the port of Algiers), Bugia, and Tripoli.

These very widely-spread dominions were largely added to by Charles V himself. In 1521 he made over Austria and the other ancient Habsburg lands to his brother Ferdinand, but he gained for himself (*a*) in the Netherlands the bishoprics of *Tournay* (1521) and *Cambray* (1543), *Guelders* (taken from its last duke in 1543), *Friesland* (1524), the bishopric of *Utrecht* (1528), and *Groningen* (1536); (*b*) in Italy, the duchy of *Milan*, on the failure of the male line of the Sforzas in 1535[1]; (*c*) on the African coast, for a time at least, Goletta and Tunis (1535–74), with Bizerta and some other footholds. Meanwhile, however, Peñon de Alger, Bugia, and some of the other original forts on this line had been lost to the Barbary Corsairs.

While Charles V had been adding these acquisitions to the realm of the elder Habsburg branch, his brother Ferdinand had also gained considerably. The male line of the kings of Bohemia-Hungary expired in 1526, with the death of King Lewis at Mohacs; and Ferdinand, as husband of the late king's sister, became the ruler of *Bohemia*, *Silesia*, *Lusatia*, *Moravia*, and such parts of *Hungary* as were not overrun by the Turks.

[1] In 1557, a year after Charles's abdication, his son, Philip II, obtained the Tuscan *Stato degli Presidii*.

EUROPE

at the

ACCESSION OF THE EMPEROR

CHARLES V.

A.D. 1519

English Miles

100 50 0 100 200 300

Boundary of the Empire —— Domins of Charles V. in 1519 □

Longitude East 10 of Greenwich

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He also acquired *Bregenz* (1525) on the Lake of Constance, and was for a time in possession of *Würtemberg* during the long exile of its duke Ulrich (1521–1534).

For the transmarine empire of the elder Habsburg line in America and Asia see Plate LXXXV.

To face the Habsburgs the Ottoman empire was no unworthy foe. The two great sovereigns Selim I (1512–20) and Soliman I (1520–66), whose reigns cover the greater part of the sixteenth century, were both conquerors on the largest scale. To the already existing provinces between the Taurus and the Danube, which he inherited from his ancestors, the former added a vast range of territories. He first pushed hard against the Persian Shah Ismail, and after the battle of Tchaldiran (1514) added to his dominion considerable portions of *Armenia* and *Kurdistan*. Next he overran the Persian province of *Upper Mesopotamia*, and added the country as far as Mosil to his empire. Immediately afterwards he turned against the Mamluk Sultans. In 1515 he conquered and annexed the principality of their vassal the Emir of Zulkadr. The next year saw the defeat and death of the Sultan Kansuh-Ghuri at the battle of Dabik (1516), which led to the annexation of *Syria*. Following up his enemies to their last refuge, Selim in 1517 overran *Egypt* after the battle of Ridaniya, and put an end to the Mamluk dynasty.

Great as were Selim's annexations, those of his son Soliman were even more startling. In 1521 he conquered *Belgrade* and drove the Hungarians north of the Danube. In 1522 he stormed *Rhodes* and expelled the Knights of St. John from all their footholds in the Ægean. In 1526 he again attacked *Hungary*, slew King Lewis at Mohacs, and conquered three-fourths of the kingdom, including its capital Buda. For the rest of his life he was engaged in an endless struggle with the Habsburgs, on whom the guardianship of central Europe had now devolved. When he died under the walls of Szigeth in 1566 Soliman was in possession of little more than he had won at Mohacs: he was never able to conquer the barrier fortresses of Western Hungary, and his siege of Vienna in 1529 had been a disastrous failure.

Meanwhile, in Asia, Soliman had been often at war with the Persian Shah Thamasp, from whom he took *Baghdad* and *Lower Mesopotamia* in 1535.

In *Africa* he became paramount over the whole north coast as far as the borders of Morocco, owing to the exploits of the two famous Corsair brothers, Uruǵ (Barbarossa) and Khaireddin. The former seized the isle of Ǵerba in 1517, and from it as a base made raids against both the native princes and the Spanish garrisons of the Barbary coast. After winning some successes he was slain in battle by the Spanish governor of Oran in 1518. But his brother Khaireddin, who had captured Algiers (1516) and Telemsan (1517), took his place and in 1534 drove out the Hafsids from Tunis. This brought down upon him Charles V, who stormed Goletta and Tunis (1535), and occupied them till his death. But, with the exception of these places and some other surviving Spanish forts further to the east, all North Africa as far as the Molucha had owned the Turkish suzerainty by 1540. The Corsair chiefs who ruled in Soliman's name kept up an endless war with the fleets of Spain and Genoa, without any marked or permanent victory on either side. It seemed for a time probable that the Turks might ultimately become masters of the Mediterranean, but they were finally checked by two defeats—their repulse before Malta in 1565, and the 'crowning mercy' of Lepanto in 1571. But Lepanto had not saved the Venetian colony of Cyprus, which fell into the hands of Sultan Selim II shortly before that great battle. This was almost the last piece of territory which the Ottomans were to succeed in tearing from the hands of the Christian powers.

We must now turn to *France*, whose growth eastward, hitherto steady enough, was practically stopped for a century by her vain striving to acquire a Transalpine empire in Milan and Naples, an end which strategical geography made impossible. Louis XI had pursued the right policy, and, at the death of Charles the Bold (1477), had seized what he could of the Burgundian inheritance. But only the *Somme Towns* and *Ducal Burgundy* were permanently absorbed (1479); *Artois* and *Flanders* went to the Habsburgs, and half a century later were freed from their nominal dependence on France by the treaty of Madrid (1525). In the south *Roussillon* had been held for thirty years (1462–93) but given back to Aragon by Charles VIII when he wanted to free his hands for his first Italian expedition. The perpetual invasions of Italy, which filled the next half-century, led to no permanent gains, though the duchy of *Milan* was actually in French hands at the moment represented in this map (1519–24). The only real gain made in this period was the absorption of the duchy of *Brittany* (1491) by the marriages of its heiress Anne, first to Charles VIII and then to Louis XII. The next successes of France did not come till the time of Henry II, who annexed the Lotharingian bishoprics of *Metz*, *Toul*, and *Verdun* in 1552, and expelled the English from *Calais* in 1558.

Navarre, deprived since 1512 of its Transpyrenean territory, survived as a minute but independent state till 1589, but was incorporated with France when its King Henry inherited that realm at the extinction of the house of Valois.

The frontiers of England and Scotland arrived at their final shape in 1481 when Edward IV took Berwick from the Scots for the last time. On the other hand, the *Orkney* and *Shetland* islands passed from Denmark to Scotland in 1469.

Scandinavia, united since the union of Kalmar, was just about to break up. The successful rebellion of Gustavus Vasa tore away *Sweden* and its old dependency of *Finland* from the house of Oldenburg (1520), which for the future ruled only in *Norway*, *Denmark*, and the outlying isles of the north-west, the *Faroes* and *Iceland*.

On the Baltic, the extensive dominions once held by the Military Orders were cut short by the kings of the House of Jagellon who wielded the united forces of *Poland* and *Lithuania*. *West Prussia* was taken from the Order in 1446 at the peace of Thorn, with Danzig and Thorn. The Sword-Knights in Livonia and Courland and the Teutonic Knights in East Prussia fell apart in 1515. Ten years later Albert of Brandenburg, the Teutonic Grand-Master, made his territory into a lay duchy, which he held under the suzerainty of Poland. The Sword-Knights, however, survived as an ecclesiastical corporation till 1558.

The kingdom of *Poland*, generally held in conjunction with the Lithuanian duchy, though occasionally separated from it, was very strong in 1519. It had owned a seacoast province on the Baltic since 1446, and had preserved most of the Lithuanian conquests in Russia, though Smolensk had been recovered by the Tsar Basil Ivanovitch in 1514. The precarious extension of the Lithuanian influence towards the Black Sea had ended with the capture of Perekop by the Turks in 1474. But the great conquests of the Lithuanian princes of the fifteenth

century were still in the main preserved by the House of Jagellon.

In *Russia* the grand-dukes of Moscow had almost completed their absorption of their brother princes. They seized Novgorod the Great in 1470, Tver in 1493, and Pskov in 1510. Only Riazan and Novgorod Severski survived, and these shared the fate of their fellows in 1521 and 1523. Since 1480, moreover, Russia was free from the Tartar yoke, and the rulers of Moscow were independent Tsars of all the Russias. The fall of the Tartars came from the breaking up of the Golden Horde into a number of rival states, Crim, Kazan, Astrakhan, and Sibir. The first-named was vassal to the Ottoman Sultan from 1475, the second was conquered by the Tsar Ivan the Terrible in 1552, and the third in 1554.

In the extreme south-east of the map we see, for the first time for many centuries, a single powerful national state established in *Persia*. Since 1502 the whole land from Armenia to Khurasan has been united under the powerful Shah Ismail, the founder of the Safavid dynasty. Under his house (1502–1722) Persia was always a vigorous state, and contended on almost equal terms with the Ottoman Sultans. She had just lost the Kurdish Highlands (1514–15) and was soon destined to lose Baghdad also (1535); but after these conquests the Turks could make no permanent advance, and the modern boundaries of Persia and Turkey in Asia are practically the same as those established in 1540.

C. OMAN.

IX

EUROPE AFTER THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA, 1648

IX

EUROPE AFTER THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA, 1648

THE most important landmark in the political geography of the seventeenth century is the Peace of Westphalia, which put an end to the desolating war which for thirty years (1618–1648) had been keeping central Europe in a turmoil. As far as Germany is concerned the struggle now comes to its conclusion, but the quarrel between France and Spain, which has been complicated with it, is destined to go on for eleven years more, and does not end till the Peace of the Pyrenees (1659). The present map, therefore, shows Spain still in possession of several districts which she was shortly to surrender to LOUIS XIV.

Starting our survey with the *Empire*, we note that the House of Habsburg has definitely failed in its attempt to undo the work of the Reformation and win back Germany to Roman Catholicism. The territorial penalties which FERDINAND III has to pay for his persistence in endeavouring to carry out his father's scheme are not very heavy. He has been forced to surrender Lusatia (Lausitz) to the Elector of Saxony, and the Austrian possessions in Alsace (the Sundgau, &c., together with the town of Breisach on the east bank of the Rhine) to France, who thus obtains her first foothold on the Rhine. The main gainer by the war is Sweden, who now acquires (1) the old bishoprics of Bremen and Verden (known henceforth as the duchy of Bremen and Verden) which command the mouth of the Elbe; (2) the western half of Pomerania, including the town of Stettin, the great port at the mouth of the Oder; (3) a narrow district in Mecklenburg round the town of Wismar, too small to be indicated in this map.

The Roman Catholic duke of *Bavaria* has profited at the cost of his Calvinist cousins of the elder line of Wittelsbach. The Electoral house of the Palatinate has paid for its sin in stirring up the Thirty Years' War by surrendering to Bavaria its eastern dominions on the Bohemian frontier, the 'Upper Palatinate.'

Brandenburg has grown largely in importance since the date of the last map; the Peace of Westphalia gives her Eastern Pomerania and the bishopric of Minden and Halberstadt, as well as the succession to the archbishopric of Magdeburg, though the latter is not formally incorporated till 1680. But the gains of the House of Hohenzollern by inheritance are even more important; they consist of (1) the duchy of Cleve and the counties of Mark and Ravensburg, forming that half of the Cleve-Jülich dominions which was allotted to Brandenburg in 1614; (2) the duchy of Prussia, which fell in to the Electoral house in 1618 on the extinction of the younger line of Hohenzollern, which had ruled in the duchy since the days of the Reformation, under the nominal suzerainty of Poland.

For the other territorial changes within the Empire during the first half of the seventeenth century the reader must be referred to the special map of Germany; they are too small to be inserted in a general map of Europe.

The boundaries of *France* have suffered little alteration since the sixteenth century. In 1601 HENRY IV acquired from the Duke of Savoy the districts of Bresse and Bugey, in the southern angle between the Saône and Rhône. In the reign of LOUIS XIII two small additions were made to the realm: Richelieu took from the Duke of Savoy Pinerolo (Pignerol), thus gaining a small foothold on the Italian side of the Alps (1631); he also acquired from the Spaniards the towns of Hesdin and St. Pol in Artois in the year 1639.

Much more important, however, are the gains from the Empire which we have already had to mention—the Sundgau, other Alsatian districts, and Breisach (1648). But it is not till the Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659) that LOUIS XIV really starts upon his long career of annexation. This treaty gave him Roussillon, the last Spanish holding beyond the Pyrenees, and in the north the rest of Artois, and a line of fortresses along the frontier of the Spanish Netherlands from Gravelines in Flanders to Thionville in the duchy of Luxemburg (for details, see Plate LVIII).

Southern France still contains two *enclaves* of alien territory: the Comtat of Venaissin (including Avignon) remains in the hands of the Popes, while the still smaller county of Orange stays with the House of Orange till 1712.

In the *Iberian Peninsula* the student will note that the kingdom of Portugal, with its old limits, has again come into being, after sixty years of unwilling union with Spain. Its restored independence dates from the rising of John of Braganza in 1640. In the small African province of Algarve de alem Mar, just across the Straits of Gibraltar, Tangier has followed the lot of the restored kingdom of Portugal, while Ceuta remains with Spain.

In *Italy* there is little change to note. Spain, retaining Naples, Milan, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Tuscan fortress-ports (Stato degli Presidii), still dominates the whole peninsula. The Papal States have been strengthened by the falling in of the two great fiefs of Ferrara (1598) and Urbino (1631). Modena, now separated from Ferrara, stays with a bastard branch of the House of Este. The Valtelline still remains under the suzerainty of the Graubünden (Grisons). Mantua and Montferrat have been united under the French house of Gonzaga-Nevers, since the war of the Mantuan succession (1631).

Returning to the north of Europe, we find that the *United Provinces* have benefited territorially by their long war with Spain. The Peace of Westphalia secures them in possession

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of parts of Flanders and Brabant. In the former they hold Sluis, Hulst, and a strip of land south of the Scheldt mouth, which enables them to control the navigation of that river and destroys the importance of Antwerp. They have also gained Breda, 's Hertogenbosch, Bergen-op-Zoom, and a great part of North Brabant. These two districts are held in common by the Seven United Provinces, and not annexed to any one of them; hence they bear the name of the 'Land of the Generality.'

In Scandinavia *Sweden* has extended her borders with steady and unswerving progress. Since the celebrated campaigns of GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS in Germany she has become one of the Great Powers of Europe. *Denmark*, in spite of the energy of the long-lived CHRISTIAN IV, has sunk into a position of inferiority. The gains of Sweden have been (1) from Russia, Carelia and Ingria, by the Treaty of Stolbova (1617). (2) From Poland, Riga and the district of Livonia (1629), as well as the Prussian towns of Elbing, Pillau, and Memel. The latter were restored in 1635, but Livonia was retained,and definitely resigned to Sweden by the Peace of Oliva (1660). (3) From Denmark the districts of Jemtland and Herjedalen, in the Norwegian inland, by the Peace of Brömsebro (1645), as also the province of Halland, in pledge. The pledge never having been redeemed, we mark Halland as Swedish. The southern extremity of the Scandinavian Peninsula (Bleking and Scania) is still Danish at the date of our map, but is destined to pass to Sweden a few years later (1658) by the Treaty of Roskilde. (4) We have already dealt with the German conquests of Sweden—Pomerania, Wismar, Bremen, and Verden.

Russia has come through the 'Time of Troubles,' after the extinction of the house of IVAN THE GREAT, with very ill fortune. Her losses to Sweden by the Treaty of Stolbova (1617) have been already mentioned. In addition she has resigned to Poland Smolensk and Tchernigov by the Treaty of Deolino (1618). The new royal house of the Romanovs is soon, however, to turn the tables upon Poland, the first reconquest of lost Russian provinces being about to come with the Treaty of Andruszowo (1667).

The frontiers of the *Ottoman Empire* in Europe show little change since the Peace of Sitvatorok (1606). Fortunately for the Empire, the Turkish sultans of the early seventeenth century were either incapable, or wholly engrossed in their wars with Persia. Abandoning the idea of western in favour of eastern conquest, they left the frontiers of Hungary and the Empire unassailed, while pushing fruitless expeditions towards Tabriz and the Caspian. Turkey is already in a state of incipient decay, though she has not yet begun to lose territory. Indeed, she has still two small conquests yet to make, being destined to win Crete from Venice in 1669, and even to occupy for a few years the Polish province of Podolia. A considerable part of her empire is still composed of client states—the Khanate of the Crimea and the Christian territories of Transylvania, Moldavia, Wallachia, and Ragusa. The African pashaliks of Tunis, Tripoli, and Algiers, under their corsair-governors, are already tending to become semi-independent, and show little deference for the central government of the Porte at Constantinople.

C. OMAN.

X

EUROPE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY PRIOR TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

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X

EUROPE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY PRIOR TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

THE settlement effected by the Peace of Westphalia in 1648 paved the way for the long ascendency of France and the occupation of the bulk of the heritage of the Habsburgs outside the Empire by princes of the French house of Bourbon. The other chief features of the period which began with the Peace of Westphalia and ended with the French Revolution are the rise of Prussia; the decline of the power of the Austrian house in Germany and its growth eastwards at the expense of Turkey; the gradual receding of the Ottoman power in Europe; and the growth of Russia to the Baltic and the Black Sea at the expense of Sweden, Poland, and the Ottoman Empire.

The Empire, whose disunion was recognized and confirmed by the Peace of Westphalia, suffered a gradual dissolution during this period by the loss of territory and the rise and growth of all but nominally independent powers within its borders until the process was completed by the French Revolution and the ascendency of Napoleon. Franche-Comté was finally ceded to France in 1678, as were also a number of towns in the part of the Spanish Netherlands subject to the Empire by the treaties of the Pyrenees, 1659; Breda, 1668; and Nimeguen, 1678 (see Plate LVIII). The Spanish branch of the house of Habsburg, by the death of CHARLES II of Spain in 1700, ceased to reign in Spain, the Sicilies, Milan, Parma, Sardinia, and the Netherlands. By the treaty of Rastadt (1714), the *Austrian* share in the dismembered heritage consisted of the duchy of Milan, Parma, Naples, Sardinia (exchanged with the Duke of Savoy for Sicily), and the Netherlands (diminished by the towns ceded to France in 1659, 1668, and 1678). *Parma* was given to the Bourbon Don Carlos in 1725, but regained in 1735 by the treaty of Vienna in exchange for the *Two Sicilies*, which were ceded to him. In 1742 Austria lost *Silesia* to Prussia, and in 1779 the *Innviertel* to Bavaria. Her only gains were in the East. *Galicia* and *Lodomir* were her share in the first partition of Poland in 1772. The larger part of *Hungary* (which was still in Ottoman hands in 1648) was ceded to Austria in 1699 by the treaty of Karlowitz, thus all but completing her possession of the kingdom. The treaty of Passarowitz in 1718 added the Banate of *Temesvar*, and parts of *Bosnia*, *Servia*, and *Wallachia*, which last were, however, lost in 1739 by the treaty of Belgrade. In 1777 the *Bukowina*, a portion of the tributary Ottoman state of Moldavia, was ceded to Austria.

The Elector of *Brandenburg*, who took the title of King of *Prussia* in 1701, was constantly making fresh additions to his dominions. His minor acquisitions are too small to be shown on this map; his more important gains were *Stettin*, the islands of *Usedom* and *Wollin* at the mouth of the Elbe, and *Hither Pomerania* as far as the Peene from Sweden in 1720, *Silesia* in 1742, *Ost-Friesland* in 1744, and *West Prussia* and the *Netze* district in 1772. The most important detached possessions of the kingdom were *Cleves*, *Mark*, *Minden*, and *Ravensberg*, *Ansbach* and *Baireuth* (1791), and *Kottbus*.

France gained a number of towns on her north-east frontier by the treaties of 1659, 1668, and 1678, mentioned above, as well as *Franche-Comté* (1678) and *Roussillon* and *Cerdagne* (1659). The greater part of *Alsace* was acquired by the *réunions* of LOUIS XIV, and the consolidation of the kingdom was all but completed (the Venaissin still remaining Papal) by the acquisition of the county of *Orange* in 1712, and the duchy of *Lorraine* in 1766. The island of *Corsica* was ceded by the Republic of Genoa, unable to subdue its revolted subjects, and conquered in 1768.

In **Spain** the final result of the War of the Spanish Succession had been the placing of a Bourbon on the throne. Portugal remained independent.

In **Italy** a Bourbon line reigned over the *Two Sicilies* from 1735 onwards. The rest of Italy was divided among the Grand Duke of *Tuscany*, the Duke of *Modena*, the Republics of *Genoa*, *Lucca*, and *Venice*, Austria (which held *Milan*, *Parma*, and *Piacenza*), and the Pope. *Venice* still held a large portion of the eastern coast of the Adriatic and the Ionian Islands, but had been forced to give up *Morea* to the Turks in 1718.

The **Ottoman Empire**, as has been mentioned above, lost Hungary, except the Banate of Temesvar, in 1699, and this last in 1718 to Austria. Its chief losses in the eighteenth century, however, were at the hands of the rising power of Russia.

Russia was confirmed in the possession of *Azov* by the Peace of Karlowitz in 1699, but this was given up by the treaty of the Pruth in 1711. By the Convention of Nissa

EUROPE
IN 1740
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300
Longitude East 10 of Greenwich
NORTH SEA
BALTIC SEA
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
Sea of Azov
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
ENGLAND
WALES
English Channel
DENMARK
SWEDEN
NORWAY
Dalarne
Livonia
Courland
Lithuania
KINGDOM OF POLAND
Volhynia
Podolia
Moldavia
Wallachia
Bulgaria
Bessarabia
Crimea
Circassia
Kabardia
Georgia
Shirwan
PRUSSIA
Brandenburg
Pomerania
Saxony
Bohemia
Moravia
Silesia
Bavaria
Austria
HUNGARY
Transylvania
Slavonia
Croatia
Bosnia
Servia
Hanover
Westphalia
Mecklenburg
Holstein
Lorraine
Alsace
Franche Comté
Burgundy
Champagne
Normandy
Brittany
Guienne
Languedoc
Provence
Dauphiny
Piedmont
Savoy
SWITZERLAND
FRANCE
SPAIN
Catalonia
Sierra Morena
Majorca
Minorca
Corsica
Sardinia
Sicily
Naples
Kingdom of Two Sicilies
Papal States
Tuscany
Genoa
Milan
Mantua
Modena
Parma
Venice
Dominions of Venice
Ionian Islands
Candia or Crete
Cyprus
Rhodes
Negropont
Morea
Albania
Romania
TURKEY IN EUROPE
TURKEY IN ASIA
Karamania
Natolia
Caramania
Diarbekir
Kurdistan
Armenia
PERSIA
ARABIA
EGYPT
ALGERIA
TRIPOLY
BARBARY
Barka
Fezzan
Gadamis
Gualata
Biledulgerid
Zaara
Zanhaga
Negroland
Gaoga
Tombut
Agadez
Kano
Nubia
Abyssinia
Gondar
Sennaar
Darfur
Dongola
Sahara

following on the Peace of Belgrade in 1739, Russia received an increase of territory at the expense of the Ottoman Empire, between the Dnieper and the Donetz. The boundaries west of the Dnieper, between it and the Bug, were imperfectly traced, and Russia took advantage of this to colonize the land with settlements which became known as *New Servia* and *New Russia* in 1754. In 1774, by the treaty of Kutchuk Kainargi, *Kinburn*, *Kertch*, *Jenikali*, and *Perikop*, with other districts between the Bug and Dnieper, were ceded to her, and *Azov* finally acquired; and in 1784 the Kuban was recognized as the boundary of the Russian dominions east of the Black Sea. The duchy of *Courland* was Russia's share in the first partition of Poland in 1772. In 1721 Sweden, by the treaty of Nystad, ceded to her *Livonia*, *Esthonia*, *Ingria*, and a part of *Carelia*, and in 1743, by the Peace of Åbo, a portion of the grand duchy of *Finland*, extending as far as the river Kymmene and including the fortresses of Wilmanstrand and Nyslot.

The Tsar Heraclius II of *Georgia* recognized the sovereignty of CATHARINE II in 1783, and the country was incorporated with Russia in 1801.

The losses of **Sweden** have already been described in relating the gains of Prussia and Russia [1].

W. E. RHODES.

[1] This Map is based on that of General von Spruner, as revised by Dr. Menke. For the various treaties cited, see Koch and Schoell, 'Histoire abrégée des Traités de Paix,' vols. i. and ii.

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XI AND XII

EUROPE IN THE TIME OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND EMPIRE, 1789–1809

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XI AND XII

EUROPE IN THE TIME OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND EMPIRE, 1789–1809

THE changes in the map of Europe between 1789 and 1809, the outlines of which are shown in four maps on the accompanying Plates, were due to the impact of the French Revolution.

I. The Results of the Early French Conquests.

(*a*) 1. In 1789 the revolutionary movement spread to the *Venaissin* and *Avignon*, which had belonged to the Pope since 1377. On September 13, 1791, these territories were annexed to France, to be formally ceded by the Pope at Tolentino, February 19, 1797.

2. On November 27, 1792, the bishopric of *Basle* (the seat of which had been transferred to Porrentruy in 1529) was secularized and converted into the Republic of Rauracia, and on March 23, 1793, was annexed to France. Switzerland ratified this arrangement August 19, 1798.

3. The county of *Nice* (*Nizza*) and the duchy of *Savoy*, which belonged to the kingdom of Sardinia, were occupied by the French and declared to be part of France in November, 1792, though they were not formally ceded by the King of Sardinia till May 15, 1796.

4. In the *Rhine* country the French were enthusiastically received in Spires (September 30, 1792), Philippsburg and Worms (October 5, 1792), and Mainz (October 21, 1792); and a 'national Rheno-Germanic Convention' proclaimed the union with France of all the German land between Landau and Bingen on the left bank of the Rhine. By the Peace of Basle, April 5, 1795, between France and Prussia, France was guaranteed the Prussian possessions on the left bank (the county of *Juliers*, part of the duchy of *Cleves*, and the principality of *Moers*). By the Peace of Basle, August 28, 1795, between France and Hesse-Cassel, France remained in possession of Rheinfels, St. Goar, and that part of the county of Katzenellenbogen which was on the left bank of the Rhine. By the Peace of Paris, August 17, 1796, between France and Würtemberg, Würtemberg ceded her possessions on the left bank of the Rhine (*Montbéliard*, &c.) By the Peace of Paris, August 28, 1796, between France and Baden, Baden did likewise.

These Rhenish districts, which were formed out of the territories of nine bishops and archbishops, six abbots, twenty-six counts and princes, four free towns, and innumerable knights, were definitely incorporated in France February 9, 1801[1]. On June 30, 1802, the Rhenish departments were in all respects assimilated to the other departments of the country.

5. The Battle of Jemmapes (November 6, 1792) made Dumouriez master of the *Austrian Netherlands*, which were annexed to France (December, 1792) under the name of Belgium, temporarily lost in 1793, but recovered in 1794, and formally recognized as French at the Peace of Campo Formio in 1797.

6. In 1795 Pichegru conquered the *Dutch Netherlands*, which by the Treaty of the Hague (May 16, 1795) were acknowledged by France as a free and independent power, guaranteed the abolition of the Stadtholderate, but deprived of *Dutch Flanders* (*Staats-Vlaanderen*), *Maastricht*, and *Venloo*, and the enclaves south of Venloo. On January 21, 1798, the new republic was proclaimed as the *Batavian Republic*, one and indivisible.

Thus by 1795 France was bounded by the Rhine and the Alps, while beyond the Rhine she was able to control the United Provinces.

(*b*) In 1796 and 1797 the campaigns of Napoleon led to a reconstruction of the map of Italy.

1. On May 20, 1796, Napoleon declared *Lombardy* (which belonged to Austria) free and independent. *Milan* declared herself free on November 15, 1796, and shortly afterwards, with the other cities of Austrian Lombardy, united in a *Lombard* or *Transpadane Republic*.

2. On August 25, 1796, a revolution broke out against Ercole III of Este, Duke of Modena and Reggio, at Reggio, and on October 4, 1796, a Republic of *Reggio and Modena* was formed. About the same time *Bologna* (which had been continuously Papal since 1512) gave herself a free constitution, and in December, 1796, a Republic was formed at *Ferrara* (Papal since 1598). On December 30, 1796, a congress representing Bologna, Ferrara, Modena, and Reggio set up the *Cispadane Republic*.

3. By the Treaty of Tolentino (February 19, 1797) with the Pope, Napoleon forced Pius VI to give up the Legations of *Bologna*, *Ferrara*, and *Romagna*, and the Port of *Ancona*.

4. In July, 1797, he created the *Cisalpine Republic* out of (*a*) Austrian Lombardy, (*b*) the Transpadane Republic, (*c*) Romagna and the Legations. The Republic was subsequently increased by (*d*) the *Valtelline*, *Bormio*, and *Chiavenna*, taken from the Grisons, October 10, 1797; (*e*) the western portion of *Venetia*, taken from the Republic of Venice, October 18, 1797; (*f*) *Lunigiana* and a part of *Parma* on the left bank of the Po, November 9, 1797; (*g*) *Pesaro* and *San Leo*, February, 1798.

5. The Republic of *Genoa* submitted to France and became the *Ligurian Republic*, June 4, 1797.

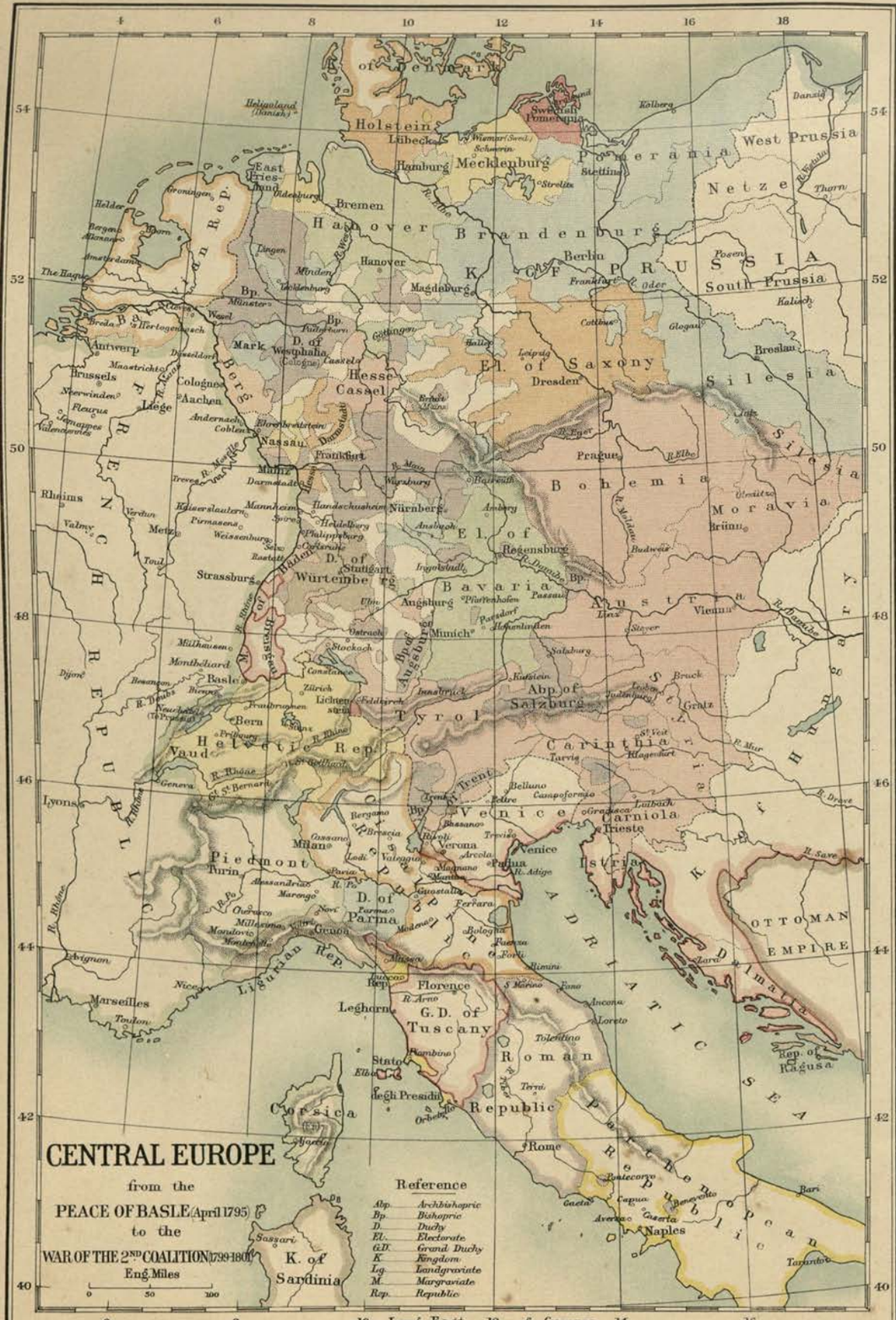
6. By the Treaty of Campo Formio (October 17, 1797) an end was put to the republic of *Venice*; the Venetian possessions on the mainland east of the Adige going to Austria, those west of the Adige to the Cisalpine Republic, and the *Ionian Islands* to France.

(*c*) During 1798 and 1799 the Directorate continued to extend its influence.

1. In *Switzerland* (*a*) France annexed three of the allied cantons, Geneva (April 26, 1798), Mühlhausen (January 15, 1798), and Bienne (Biel); (*b*) Neufchâtel, held by the King of Prussia, was separated from Switzerland; (*c*) the Swiss Confederation became the *Helvetian Republic* (August 19, 1798), and signed an offensive and defensive alliance with France.

2. In *Italy* (*a*) on December 9, 1798, Charles Emmanuel IV was obliged to abdicate and flee to Sardinia. A provisional French government was established in *Piedmont*, December 9, 1798. Then the Allies reconquered the principality

[1] For the various forms of government which were introduced by the French into the Rhenish districts from 1794 to 1802, see Rambaud, *Les Français sur le Rhin*.



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and governed it till 1800. It was then (April 2, 1801) divided into departments after the French manner, and formally annexed to France, September 11, 1802. (*b*) The remnants of the States of the Church, with the city of Rome and Ancona, were formed into a *Roman Republic*, which lasted from February 15, 1798, to September 30, 1798. After a provisional government the Papal rule was restored June 22, 1800. (*c*) Ferdinand IV was driven out of Naples into Sicily and a *Parthenopean Republic* established in the Kingdom of Naples, which lasted from January 23 to July 23, 1799. (*d*) In 1799 the Grand Duke of Tuscany, Ferdinand III of Lorraine, was driven out by the French and a provisional government established, March 27. On June 16 Ferdinand was temporarily restored; but at the Peace of Lunéville (February 9, 1801) Tuscany was ceded to France, and (March 21, 1801), augmented by the Stato de' Presidi[1] and by some imperial fiefs in the Apennines, was transferred as the *Kingdom of Etruria* to Louis son of Ferdinand, Duke of Parma. Lastly, at the Peace of Lunéville, 1801, the Duke of Modena, Ercole III, was compensated for his losses by the *Breisgau*[2] (ceded by Austria), while Austria received the territories of the secularized bishoprics of *Trent* and *Brixen*. France received the old Habsburg possessions on the left bank of the Rhine (the Frickthal, the county of Falkenstein, Laufenburg, and Rheinfelden).

II. From 1801 to the Establishment of the French Empire.

(*a*) *Italy*. The *Cisalpine Republic*, augmented by the Novarese, September 7, 1800, was reconstituted 1801, with Bonaparte as President, and converted into the *Italian Republic*, January 26, 1802. On the death of Duke Ferdinand of *Parma* that part of his duchy which had not been annexed to the Cisalpine Republic was occupied by the French. In 1801 the principality of *Piombino* (which belonged to Naples) and the island of *Elba* (which had been divided between Piombino, Naples, and Tuscany) went to France.

(*b*) *Switzerland*. In 1802 Napoleon detached the *Vallais* from the Helvetian Republic, and made it an independent republic; and by the Act of Mediation, February 19, 1803, the Helvetian Republic was dissolved, and its place taken by a Confederation of sovereign states, forming nineteen cantons; one of which, Aargau, was mainly composed of districts ceded by Austria in 1801.

(*c*) *Germany*. (*a*) By a treaty between France and Austria, December 26, 1802, Austria ceded the *Ortenau* to the Duke of Modena, for the secularized bishoprics of Trent and Brixen. (*b*) On November 7, 1801, the German Diet had named a deputation to determine the compensations which were to be received by the princes in exchange for their losses to France on the left bank of the Rhine at the Peace of Lunéville. In the course of 1801 and 1802 the German princes signed a number of private contracts with Napoleon, in virtue of which they took possession of the lands assigned them, and these contracts were confirmed by the decision of the Imperial Deputation, 'Reichsdeputationshauptschluss' (February 25, 1803), which decided that the compensations were to be taken (1) from the secularization of all the Ecclesiastical States, with the exceptions of (i) the Teutonic Order, (ii) the Order of the Knights of St. John, (iii) Ratisbon (Regensburg), which was to receive the electoral dignity of Mainz; (2) from the mediatization of the imperial villages; (3) from the mediatization of all the imperial towns, except Hamburg, Augsburg, Nuremberg, Lübeck, Bremen, and Frankfurt.

The chief territorial results were as follows:—

1. A hundred and twelve States were suppressed.

2. A principality of *Ratisbon* was formed out of the secularized bishopric of Ratisbon, the secularized abbeys of St. Emmeran, Obermünster, and Niedermünster, the imperial towns of Ratisbon and Wetzlar, and the principality of *Aschaffenburg* (created from lands which had belonged to Mainz and Würzburg). The principality of Ratisbon went to the ex-Archbishop of Mainz with the title of Elector Archchancellor.

3. *Prussia* was indemnified for her loss of 127,000 subjects on the left bank of the Rhine by the gain of 500,000 subjects in *Westphalia* and *Thuringia*. She received the bishoprics of Paderborn and Hildesheim, the town and quarter part of the bishopric of Münster, part of the electorate of Mainz (Erfurt and Eichsfeld), several abbeys, and three imperial towns, Mühlhausen, Nordhausen, and Goslar.

4. *Bavaria* surrendered 700,000 subjects to gain 900,000. She surrendered the Palatinate of the *Rhine*, and the duchies of *Zweibrücken* (*Deux Ponts*) and *Jülich* (*Juliers*). She acquired the bishoprics of *Augsburg*, *Bamberg*, and *Freising*, parts of the bishoprics of *Passau*, *Eichstädt*, and *Würzburg*, besides nine abbeys, one priory, and fifteen imperial towns[1].

5. *Baden* again was increased; its Margrave became a Prince Elector, and received in exchange for concessions on the left bank of the Rhine the bishopric of *Constance*, the abbacy of *Reichenau*, parts of the bishoprics of *Basle*, *Spires*, and *Strassburg*, four and a half abbeys, and seven imperial towns[2].

6. The Duke of *Würtemberg* received the dignity of Prince Elector and had his territory augmented by the absorption of nine imperial towns[3] and several abbeys and priories.

7. The Landgrave of *Hesse-Darmstadt* also gained more on the right bank than he ceded on the left. His acquisitions were at the expense of the archbishopric of Mainz, the bishopric of Worms, the duchy of Westphalia, and the imperial town of Friedberg.

8. The archbishopric of *Salzburg*, which had been secularized in 1801, was made a duchy and given to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, together with the dignity of Elector, and the grant of the priory of *Berchtolsgaden* and part of the bishopric of *Passau*.

9. The Landgrave of *Hesse-Cassel* received the dignity of Elector, the free town of Gelnhausen, and some other lands.

Thus the Imperial Towns were reduced from fifty-one to six. The number of Electors was increased from eight to ten; for, while two Ecclesiastical Electors (Trèves and Cologne) were suppressed, four new Electorates had been created, *Salzburg*, *Baden*, *Würtemberg*, and *Hesse-Cassel*. At the same time the ten imperial circles were reduced by two, for the Burgundian Circle disappeared with the French annexations, and the two Rhenish Circles were united.

[1] This consisted of Orbitello, Talamone, Porto-Ercole, Monte-Argenturo, and San Stefano, which had passed from Siena to Spain 1555, from Spain to Austria 1714, and from Austria to Naples 1735.

[2] The French occupied the Breisgau till 1803. Ferdinand of Austria, Ercole's successor, then took up the government as Duke of Modena-Breisgau. He died in 1805, and in 1806 the Breisgau was divided between Baden and Würtemberg. In 1810 Würtemberg ceded her portion to Baden.

[1] Bopfingen, Buchhorn, Dünkelsbühl, Kaufbeuern, Kempten, Leutkirch, Memmingen, Nördlingen, Ravensburg, Rothenburg, Schweinfurt, Ulm, Wangen, Weissenburg, Windsheim.

[2] Biberach, Gengenbach, Offenburg, Pfullendorf, Überlingen, Wimpfen, and Zell.

[3] Aalen, Esslingen, Giengen, Gmünd, Hall, Heilbronn, Reutlingen, Rottweil, Weil.

III. From the Establishment of the French Empire, 1804, to the Dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire, 1806.

(*a*) *Italy.*

1. The *Ligurian Republic* was annexed by France, June 4, 1805.

2. On March 17, 1805, the Italian Republic was converted into the *Kingdom of Italy*, and increased (March 30) by the cession of *Venetia*, *Istria* (less Trieste), and *Dalmatia* from Austria.

3. The duchy of *Guastalla* was re-established, 1805, for Napoleon's sister, Pauline Borghese.

4. The republic of *Lucca* was suppressed, June 4, 1805. Lucca was then united to Piombino, June 23, 1805, and made a principality for Napoleon's sister Eliza Baciocchi. In 1806 it was increased by Massa-Carrara and Garfagnana, which were detached from the kingdom of Italy.

5. On December 27, 1805, Napoleon dethroned the Bourbons from *Naples*, and on March 30, 1806, gave their kingdom to his brother Joseph, who was transferred to Spain in 1808 and succeeded by Murat.

(*b*) *Switzerland.* Neufchâtel was transferred to France by Prussia and given as a principality to Berthier, 1805.

(*c*) *Germany.*

1. *Bavaria* was increased by the Tyrol, the Vorarlberg, the Margraviate of Burgau, the rest of Passau and Augsburg, the towns of Augsburg and Lindau, and the lands of the immediate nobility and religious orders within her dominions, December 26, 1805. On the other hand she ceded Würzburg to the ex-Grand Duke of Tuscany, whose duchy of Salzburg went to Austria. In 1806 the Elector of Bavaria became a King, and in 1807 ceded the duchy of *Berg* to France, receiving in exchange the principality of *Ansbach*.

2. *Würtemberg* received in 1805 the counties of Hohenberg, Nellenburg, and Altorf, part of Austrian Swabia. In 1806 the Duke of Würtemberg was given the title of King.

3. *Baden* in 1805 acquired Constance, Breisgau, Ortenau, and all the territories which had belonged to the Teutonic Order and the Order of St. John within her boundaries. In 1806 she acquired the county of Bondorf from Würtemberg.

4. An Electorate and Grand Duchy of *Würzburg* was made for Ferdinand of Salzburg, February 1, 1806.

5. *Augsburg*, *Nuremberg*, and *Frankfurt* disappeared as free towns, while the lands of the ecclesiastical orders were absorbed, 1806.

6. In March, 1806, a Grand Duchy of *Berg* was formed out of Berg (ceded by Bavaria) and Cleves (ceded by Prussia), its capital being Düsseldorf and its grand-duke Murat.

7. On July 12, 1806, the *Confederation of the Rhine* was signed at Paris and placed under the protection of Napoleon. It comprised the following members:

July 12—Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, Berg, Hesse-Darmstadt, Nassau-Usingen, Nassau-Weilburg, Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Salm-Salm, Salm-Kyrburg, Aremberg, Isenburg-Birstein, Lichtenstein, and the principality von der Leyen.

September 15—Würzburg.

December 11—King of Saxony[1].

December 15—Five dukes of Saxony of the Ernestine line.

April 18, 1807—Three dukes of Anhalt, four princes of Reuss, two of Schwarzburg, two of Lippe, and one of Waldeck.

November 15—Westphalia.

[1] The Elector of Saxony now first takes the title of King.

February 17, 1808—Mecklenburg-Strelitz.

March 22—Mecklenburg-Schwerin.

October 14—Oldenburg.

Further, the imperial towns of Frankfurt (given to the Prince Primate) and Nuremberg (to Bavaria) were mediatised.

After the completion of the Confederation of the Rhine, all the princes, counts, and knights of the Empire were mediatised, except the members of the Confederation, Brunswick, Prussia, Hanover, and Electoral Hesse.

8. In 1805 *Prussia* was deprived of Cleves (to Berg) and Ansbach and Baireuth (to Bavaria), but gained *Hanover* (from England, but occupied by France since 1803).

9. On August 6, 1806, FRANCIS II (who had accepted the title of Emperor of Austria, August 18, 1804) resigned the Imperial Crown, and unbound all the members of the Empire from their allegiance. With this act ended the Holy Roman Empire.

IV. From the Peace of Tilsit (July, 1807) to the War with Austria (1809).

(*a*) *North of the Alps.*

1. The Grand Duchy of *Warsaw* was formed (July 7, 1807) out of the Polish provinces of Prussia, save *Danzig*, which was made a free town.

2. The Kingdom of *Westphalia* was created (August 18, 1807), for the benefit of Napoleon's brother Jerome, out of the Prussian provinces west of the Elbe, Hesse-Cassel, the duchy of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, the southern part of Hanover, the county of Barby and part of Saxon Mansfeld (both ceded by the King of Saxony), the bishopric of Osnabrück (from Prussia) and the bishopric of Corvey (from Nassau-Orange).

3. *Prussia* was diminished to four provinces only—(1) Brandenburg, less the Old March; (2) Silesia; (3) Pomerania; (4) East Prussia, less Danzig, Thorn, and the district of the Netze.

(*b*) *South of the Alps.*

1. The *Papal States* were reduced and occupied by the French. In 1805 they had taken Ancona, and then *Benevento* and *Pontecorvo* were made principalities for Talleyrand and Bernadotte respectively. In 1807 the Marches of Ancona, Macerata, Fermo, and Urbino were taken away from the Pope, and in 1808 were united to the kingdom of Italy. In February, 1808, General Miollis occupied Rome, and kept the Pope a virtual prisoner in the Quirinal, though the Edict declaring the abolition of the temporal power and the annexation of the Papal States to France was not issued till May 17, 1809.

2. The kingdom of *Etruria* was ceded to France, December 10, 1807, by Charles Louis of Parma. At first Etruria was made part of France, March 24, 1808; but afterwards, on March 2, 1809, it was given as the *Grand Duchy of Tuscany* to Napoleon's sister Eliza, Princess of Lucca and Piombino since 1805, and Princess of Massa Carrara in 1806.

3. The duchy of *Parma* was incorporated in 1808, and was made a Principality for Cambacérès[1].

H. A. L. FISHER.

[1] See Stockvis, *Manuel d'Histoire, de Généalogie, et de Chronologie de tous les États du Globe*; Himly, *La Formation territoriale de l'Europe*; Rambaud et Lavisse, *Histoire Générale*, viii, ix; C. G. de Koch and F. Schoell, *Histoire abrégée des Traités de Paix entre les Puissances de l'Europe depuis la Paix de Westphalie*; Martens, *Recueil des principaux Traités*.

XIII

EUROPE, 1814–1863

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XIII

EUROPE, 1814–1863

AFTER nearly a generation of wars and consequent alterations of frontier, the two Treaties of Paris (1814, 1815) and the Congress of Vienna restored the boundaries of the several European nations almost to what they had been immediately before the French Revolution. The first Peace of Paris (May 30, 1814) defined the limits of *France* to be those of January 1, 1792, with some slight differences to her advantage. The most important additions to French territory were as follows :—

1. Avignon and the county of the Venaissin, which had belonged to the Pope.

2. Montbéliard, Mühlhausen, Altweiler, and some other small districts in Alsace, which had been German.

3. A strip of what is now Belgian territory, extending from near Mons on the west to the frontier of Luxemburg on the east, and comprising the cantons of Dour, Beaumont, Valcour, &c., and the towns of Philippeville and Mariembourg.

4. At the southern extremity of Rhenish Prussia, the districts of Saarbrück, Tholey, &c.

5. At the south-east angle of the Bavarian Palatinate, a district which bridged over the gap between Landau (previously French) and the French frontier.

6. The north-west corner of Savoy, including the districts of Frangy, St. Julien, Chambéry, and Annecy.

The territories comprised under the last four heads are bounded by green lines on the map.

By the second Peace of Paris (November 20, 1815), these additions, excepting (1) and (2), were cancelled. Philippeville and its district, with Bouillon, were given to the Netherlands ; Sarrelouis and Saarbrück to Prussia ; Landau and the district north of the Lauter to Bavaria ; and the Chambéry district to Sardinia. At the same time a portion of the Pays de Gex[1], about Versoix, on the north-west shore of the Lake Leman, was ceded to the canton of Geneva, in order to establish communication between that canton and the rest of Switzerland. France was thus reduced, practically speaking, to her former limits.

But, if France lost no territory by the war, her position relative to the rest of Europe underwent a great alteration through the territorial changes effected elsewhere by the Treaties of Paris and the Congress of Vienna.

[1] This district is too small to be marked on the map.

On her northern frontier arose a new state, the *Kingdom of the Netherlands*, composed of the former kingdom of Holland, the territories now forming the kingdom of Belgium (previously the Austrian Netherlands), and the Duchy of Luxemburg, part of which was included in the German Confederation.

To the south, *Spain* and *Portugal* remained unchanged. The little republic of *Andorra*, on the Spanish side of the Pyrenees, retained its independence under nominal French protection.

The Treaties of Campo Formio and Lunéville had practically destroyed the old régime in *Germany*, and the Holy Roman Empire had come to an end in 1806. In its place was now formed the *German Confederation* (Deutscher Bund) under the presidency of the Emperor of Austria. The limits of the Confederation are indicated by a red line. They follow, with slight differences, those of the old empire in 1792. But the internal changes were of the highest importance. Of the numerous states (about 300 in all) which formed the old empire, only thirty-nine remained, including four Free Towns (Hamburg, Bremen, Lübeck, and Frankfurt). The rulers of two foreign powers, Denmark and the Netherlands, were members of the Confederation by virtue of their possession of Holstein with Lauenburg, and Luxemburg, respectively. The King of Hanover was also King of Great Britain. Austria and Prussia possessed large territories not included in the Confederation.

The aggrandisement of the larger German states at the expense of their smaller neighbours had radically altered the map of Germany. *Prussia*, while recovering Posen, gave up a large part of her Polish territory to Russia, but received, by way of compensation, the northern part of Saxony and rich lands on the Rhine and the Moselle, the Duchies of Jülich and Berg, the Archbishoprics of Köln and Trier, &c. To *Hanover* she surrendered East Friesland and other districts, obtaining secure possession of Western Pomerania and the island of Rügen (formerly Swedish) instead. On the whole, she was little better off in area or population than she had been before 1795, but her centre of gravity had shifted westward, her subjects were in larger proportion German, and her dominions were to some extent consolidated. The other chief North-German states were *Oldenburg* and *Mecklenburg*. Central Germany was occupied by a number of small states, the chief of which were the grand-duchy of *Hesse-Darmstadt*, the

CENTRAL and EASTERN EUROPE
1814 - 1863

English Miles
100 50 0 100

Note – The boundary of the German Confederation is shown by a deep red line.

Long. East 10 of Greenwich

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

electorate of *Hesse-Cassel* (*Kurhessen*), *Nassau*, and *Saxony*. Southern Germany had consolidated itself under three states, *Baden*, *Würtemberg*, and *Bavaria*, the last-named, with its possessions on the left bank of the Rhine (formerly belonging, with others on the Main and the Neckar, to the Elector Palatine), being larger than the other two states put together.

The relations of the Scandinavian powers were completely altered by the transference of *Norway* from Denmark to *Sweden*—a union not like that of the northern and southern Netherlands, but of two independent kingdoms under one head. On the other hand, Sweden had already (1809) parted with Finland and the Åland Islands to Russia, thus becoming a purely peninsular power. *Iceland* did not go with Norway, but remained under Denmark.

The gains of *Russia* were considerable. Besides Finland, she took over a great part of what had been Prussian Poland. This territory, combined with Posen and a considerable piece of Russian Poland, had formed Napoleon's Duchy of Warsaw. It was administered by Russia for the next sixteen years as a separate and partially self-governing province, called the kingdom of Poland. On the borders of Turkey, Russia retained Bessarabia and Eastern Moldavia, which she had already conquered (1812). The Pruth and the left bank of the Danube now formed the Russian frontier. The Danubian Delta remained in the hands of Turkey.

The free town of *Cracow*, with a small district dependent on it, was alone permitted to keep alive the memory of Polish independence.

The *Austrian Empire* received little territorial aggrandisement, but the dominions of the Habsburgs became far more consolidated and defensible than before. Austria surrendered the Netherlands (which had always been exposed to French attacks) and her lands on the upper Rhine and elsewhere in South Germany: but she recovered from Bavaria all that Napoleon had torn from her to lavish on his ally—Tirol, Salzburg, the Innviertel, &c.; she received back Galicia from Russia; while as a compensation for the Netherlands, and as a bulwark against the revival of French influence in Italy, she acquired Lombardy and Venetia, with Venice and Dalmatia. Thus, to all appearance, she was far stronger than of old; but Prussia had taken her place as the natural protector of Germany, and her Italian possessions, though they made her the dominant power in Italy for more than forty years, eventually proved a *damnosa haereditas*.

To the south-west of the Vorarlberg, in the angle formed by the Prättigau and the Rhine, the little principality of *Liechtenstein* retained—and still retains—its independence.

In the south-east of Europe, the *Ottoman Empire* underwent no change, except in respect of the cessions to Russia, already mentioned, and of the seven Ionian Islands, now forming a sort of commonwealth under the protection of Great Britain. Servia, Moldavia, and Wallachia remained, as before, tributary principalities. *Montenegro* retained the independence which it had never lost, though this condition was not recognized by Turkey.

Switzerland, under the constitution of 1815, fell back again into a loose confederation; but the area included in the league was enlarged by the addition of Geneva, Vallais, Neuchâtel (under the nominal sovereignty of Prussia), and the Bishopric of Basel. The league now consisted of twenty-two self-governing cantons.

In the south and centre of *Italy*, pre-revolutionary conditions were generally restored. The kingdom of the Two Sicilies, the Papal States, and the central Italian duchies, passed again, with boundaries unchanged, under the power of their former rulers. In the north, however, great changes took place. *Sardinia* recovered Savoy and Nice, and acquired Genoa with its dependent territory, thus gaining access to the sea. The valley of the Po passed into the hands of Austria. Thus Italy again became, in the phrase of Metternich, a mere 'geographical expression.'

Great Britain retained possession of Malta and Heligoland, and took over the protectorate of the Ionian Islands.

For some fifteen years after the second Treaty of Paris, no change was made in the state of things described above, except that in 1818 a small part of Galicia, south of Cracow, was added to the German Confederation[1]. The revolutionary movements of 1820–1821 in Spain, Portugal, and Italy made no alteration in political geography. It was otherwise with the struggle for liberty in *Greece*, which ended in the recognition of Greek independence by the Conference of London (February 3, 1830). Two years later the monarchy was established at Athens. The northern boundary of the new kingdom of Greece ran from the Gulf of Arta, south of Epirus and Thessaly, to the Gulf of Volo. It included Eubœa and the Cyclades; but Samos, hitherto independent, passed under the power of the Turk.

The Treaty of Adrianople (September 14, 1829), which ended the war between Russia and Turkey, had made little territorial change in Europe[2], only handing over the Danube Delta to Russia. The south or right bank of the Danube now became the Turkish boundary. The stipulations respecting Moldavia and Wallachia, and Servia, while leaving those states under Ottoman suzerainty, made them practically independent of Turkey, and brought them more than ever under Russian influence.

The French Revolution of July, 1830, led to movements elsewhere, which made the first serious breach in the treaties of 1815. The insurrections in Italy were ineffective, while the rising in Russian Poland (1831) only led to the suppression of Polish nationality and the absorption of the so-called kingdom of Poland in the Russian Empire. But the revolution that began in Brussels in September, 1830, forced the Powers to recognize Belgian independence, and to establish a new kingdom of Belgium, occupying almost the same area as the Austrian Netherlands. The treaty separating Belgium from Holland and defining the limits of the new kingdom was signed at London, November 15, 1831; but the vexed question of Luxemburg, and the resistance of Holland, deferred the final settlement till April, 1839. The Duchy of Luxemburg was then divided into two parts, the boundary line (marked brown on the map) running to the east of Arlon. The western and larger part was annexed to Belgium; the eastern, containing the strong fortress of Luxemburg itself, remained in the hands of Holland. As a compensation for this cession, Belgium gave up its claim to certain portions of Limburg on both banks of the Meuse; and the enlarged Duchy of Limburg (which included the fortress of Maestricht) was incorporated in the German Confederation.

Neither the Egypto-Turkish war (1839–1841) nor the Sonderbund war in Switzerland (1847) led to any alterations of frontier in Europe; but the insurrection in Galicia (1846), and its promotion in *Cracow*, gave the Austrian Government

[1] The district is bounded by a broken red line on the map.

[2] The important alterations of frontier to the east of the Black Sea cannot be shown in the map.

a pretext for annexing that city with its district. The last relics of Polish independence thus came to an end.

Meanwhile a great step had been taken towards the unity of Germany by the establishment of the Prussian *Zollverein* (Customs-union), which, after more than thirty years of conflict with various opponents or rivals, at length, by the adhesion of Hanover and other North-German states (September 1851), spread itself over all Germany outside the Austrian Empire. The southern and eastern boundaries of the Zollverein are marked with a brown line; the western were identical with those of the Confederation.

The various revolutions of the years 1848–1849, which threatened at one time to upset all the boundaries of Central Europe, ended by leaving things as they were. But a few years later we enter upon a period of rapid change, out of which the Europe of the present day emerged.

The *Crimean war*, originating in a trivial dispute about the rights of the Latin and Greek Churches in Palestine, was really due to the anxiety of the Tsar to be beforehand in the partition of the Turkish Empire which he thought to be approaching; to the desire of Napoleon III to confirm his own power and to increase French influence in the East; and to the vacillations and fears of the British Government. The Treaty of Paris (March 30, 1856), which concluded the war, made an important alteration in the Russian frontier towards the Danube. Russia ceded a portion of Bessarabia, with the Danube Delta, to the south and west of a line marked brown in the map. The ceded territory was handed over to Moldavia. The suzerainty of Turkey over the *Principalities* (Moldavia and Wallachia) and over *Servia* was maintained, together with the right of the Porte to garrison the fortresses of Servia; but the right of any single power (Turkey included) to interfere in the internal affairs of those states, for the purpose of suppressing disorder or any other end, was expressly disclaimed. Other clauses neutralized the Black Sea, prohibited Russia and Turkey from fortifying any port on its coast, and limited their right of maintaining a navy on its waters to a few light ships[1].

A conference met at Paris in 1858 to settle the organization of the Principalities, but the people took matters into their own hands, and, after passing through several intermediate stages, formed a single state, *Rumania* (1859–1862). In 1863 the Turkish garrisons were expelled from *Servia*, which thus attained a practical independence equal to that of Rumania.

A quarrel which had arisen in the canton of *Neuchâtel* between the radical and the royalist parties ended (May, 1857) in the renunciation by the King of Prussia of his sovereign rights over the territory, and its complete absorption in the Swiss Confederation.

Shortly afterwards far more important changes took place in *Italy*. The peace of Villafranca, which brought to a close the Franco-Austrian war (July 11, 1859), stipulated that Austria should cede Lombardy (excepting the fortresses of Peschiera and Mantua, forming the western side of the Quadrilateral) to Sardinia. The eastern frontier of Sardinia now ran from the Lake of Garda southward along the Mincio to a point due west of Mantua, and thence to the junction of the Oglio and the Po. In accordance with the treaty of peace, and with the resolutions of the Conference of Zürich, Italy was to become a confederation. But the Italian peoples, aided by the diplomacy of Cavour and the vacillations of Napoleon III, settled their fate otherwise. The revolutions in Central Italy, which followed the Franco-Sardinian victories, made it impossible to restore the former rulers; and, after several months of uncertainty, plébiscites in the revolted territories led to the annexation of *Parma*, *Modena*, *Tuscany*, and *Romagna* (or the Legations—the northern part of the states of the Church) to the newly-created *Kingdom of Italy* (March–April, 1860). As the price of French acquiescence in these accessions, the provinces of *Savoy* and *Nice* were at the same time handed over to Napoleon. The tiny republic of *San Marino* was not absorbed by Italy, and still remains an independent state.

While these events were proceeding in Northern and Central Italy, Garibaldi was preparing for his invasion of *Sicily*, which began in May, 1860. After overrunning the island and entering *Naples*, he was stopped by the Neapolitan troops on the Volturno. The Italian forces now interfered. On their entry into the Papal States, *Umbria* and the *Marches* at once rose against the Pope. Early in 1861 the last opposition in the Neapolitan kingdom was overcome, and plébiscites declared for the annexation of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies and the greater part of the Papal States to Italy. Italy was now one state, with the exception of Venetia, still Austrian, and the patrimony of St. Peter—the territory round Rome—which still obeyed the Pope.

The accompanying map shows the politico-geographical condition of Central and Eastern Europe in 1815, with an indication of the changes made between that date and 1863.

G. W. PROTHERO.

[1] These clauses were abrogated in 1870–1871; see below, Plate XIV.

XIV

EUROPE, 1863–1897

XIV

EUROPE, 1863–1897

In 1863, when the union of Italy was almost complete, the union of Germany, except in so far as it was prepared for by the Zollverein, was not begun. But the accession of Christian III to the throne of Denmark in that year brought the question of the duchies of *Sleswick* and *Holstein* into an acute stage, and the solution of that question was the first great step towards the making of the German Empire.

In December, 1863, the troops of the German Confederation entered the duchies, but a month later (January, 1864) Austria and Prussia took the matter out of the hands of their weaker colleagues. A short campaign sufficed to place the allies in command, not only of the duchies, but of the greater part of continental Denmark. The London Conference (May to June) failed to effect a settlement, and the war continued for another month. Preliminaries of peace were signed on August 1, and in the Treaty of Vienna (October 30, 1864) the King of Denmark ceded the duchies of Sleswick, Holstein, and Lauenburg unconditionally to Austria and Prussia.

The conquest of the duchies was less difficult than their settlement when conquered. Pending the solution of the question in what way they should be combined with Germany, the two Powers administered them jointly for some time. The Federal troops were withdrawn, but Austria and Prussia remained in military occupation. A divergence between the views of the allies soon showed itself, but a rupture was temporarily avoided by the Convention of Gastein (August 14, 1865), by which it was agreed between the two Powers that the administration of the duchies should be divided, Austria taking over the government of Holstein, and Prussia that of Sleswick, while the emperor disposed of his rights over Lauenburg to the King of Prussia for a sum of money. It was further understood that the ultimate fate of the duchies should be settled by the two Powers without the interference of any third party.

This was obviously only a makeshift. The proposals of Prussia, which aimed at a practical absorption of the duchies in the Prussian military system, were rejected by Austria, which leant more and more towards their incorporation, as new and independent members, in the German Confederation. Using the pretext of an agitation for independence in the duchies, Prussia, in June, 1866, occupied Holstein. Eventually the submission of the question by Austria to the Diet, and the decision of the majority of the Diet in favour of interference, were the immediate causes of the Austro-Prussian War, which began on June 16, 1866. Within seven weeks Prussia had crushed her opponents. The battle of Königgrätz (or Sadowa), July 3, was decisive of the struggle. Preliminaries were signed at Nikolsburg on July 26, and on August 23 the Treaty of Prague restored peace.

After an existence of half a century, the German Confederation disappeared. Austria resigned the headship of Germany, with all claim to interfere in its future settlement, as well as her rights over the duchies of Sleswick and Holstein, only stipulating that the northernmost districts of Sleswick should, if they wished, be restored to Denmark[1]. Austria suffered no diminution of territory on the German side; *Saxony* was, with some difficulty, preserved from mutilation; while *Bavaria* ceded only some small outlying districts, and *Hesse-Darmstadt* made some exchanges to the advantage of Prussia, which acquired, among other districts, that of Hesse-Homburg. On the other hand, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and the free town of Frankfurt, together with Sleswick and Holstein, were annexed to Prussia, which thus not only gained continuity of territory, but became superior to all the rest of Germany put together. The districts ceded to Prussia are shaded with blue lines in the map.

In the same Treaty of Prague it was stipulated that Austria should cede *Venetia* to Italy, which thus gained what Napoleon III had promised, but had not won for her, in 1859. Italy might have acquired the province without any fighting, as the price of her neutrality in the Austro-Prussian War; but, in spite of the temptation, the 'honest king' adhered to his bargain with Prussia, and, though defeated at Custozza and Lissa, obtained his reward. The annexed district is shaded with buff lines. In the same year Napoleon, in accordance with the Convention of September 1864 between France and Italy, withdrew the French troops from Roman territory, which they had guarded since 1849. A year later, however, they returned, on the occasion of the ill-advised expedition of Garibaldi, which ended at Mentana (November, 1867).

The results of the Austro-Prussian War on the internal relations of the German states and on the Austrian Empire were momentous. In 1867 a North-German Confederation (Norddeutscher Bund) was established under the headship of Prussia. It comprised, practically speaking, all Germany north of the Main and of the Erzgebirge—the only exception being that part of Bavaria which is on the right bank of the Main—as well as the non-German provinces of Prussia. The boundaries of the new Confederation are indicated by a blue line where they differ from those of the Zollverein and the previous German Confederation (see Plate XIII).

The league so formed was, like the empire for which it

[1] This stipulation, added at the suggestion of Napoleon III, was not carried out.

NORTH SEA
IRISH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
BALTIC SEA
ENGLAND
FRANCE
BELGIUM
DENMARK
Prussia
Brandenburg
Posen
Silesia
Saxony
Westphalia
Rhenish Prussia
Hanover
Bavaria
Bohemia
Moravia
Austria
Hungary
Galicia
Transylvania
Switzerland
Piedmont
Lombardy
Tuscany
SARDINIA
CORSICA
SICILY
Balearic Isles
Majorca
Minorca
Ibiza
Formentera
TYRRHENIAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
IONIAN SEA
Æ G E A N SEA
BLACK SEA
Sea of Marmara
Gulf of Taranto
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Venice
Lipari Islands
Ægades Islands
Ionian Islands
Eubœa
Crete
Kephalonia
Zante
Corfu
Strait of Bonifacio
Strait of Otranto
Strait of Messina
Danube
Dniester
Dnieper
Don
Volga
Vistula
Oder
Elbe
Rhine
Seine
Loire
Garonne
Rhone
Ebro
Tagus
Guadiana
Guadalquivir
Po
Tiber
Arno
Adige
Tiber
Sicily
Naples
Rome
Venice
Florence
Genoa
Milan
Turin
Marseilles
Lyons
Paris
Bordeaux
Barcelona
Madrid
Lisbon
Valencia
Seville
Gibraltar
Algiers
Tunis
Malta
Vienna
Budapest
Prague
Munich
Berlin
Dresden
Leipzig
Frankfort
Hamburg
Amsterdam
The Hague
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Liverpool
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Southampton
Portsmouth
Plymouth
Cherbourg
Le Havre
Calais
Boulogne
Dover
Ostend
Antwerp
Rotterdam
Cologne
Frankfort
Nuremberg
Stuttgart
Strasburg
Basle
Zurich
Geneva
Lucerne
Innsbruck
Salzburg
Graz
Trieste
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Messina
Catania
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Cagliari
Bastia
Ajaccio
Corfu
Athens
Constantinople
Smyrna
Salonica
Adrianople
Philippopolis
Eastern Roumelia
Bulgaria
Servia
Montenegro
Roumania
Turkey
Russia
Poland
Warsaw
Lodz
Cracow
Lemberg
Brody
Kiev
Odessa
Sebastopol
Kherson
Nikolaev
Ekaterinoslav
Kharkov
Poltava
Orel
Moscow
Smolensk
Minsk
Vilna
Kovno
Memel
Königsberg
Danzig
Gulf of Danzig
Stettin
Rostock
Kiel
Hamburg
Helgoland
Heligoland
Frisian Islands
Jutland
Copenhagen
Malmö
Gothenburg
Christiania
Stockholm
Gulf of Bothnia
Gulf of Finland
St. Petersburg
Riga
Reval
Archangel
Perm
Kazan
Nijni Novgorod
Tula
Kaluga
Tver
Yaroslav
Vologda
Astrakhan
Saratov
Samara
Orenburg
Tiflis
Erivan
Baku
Caucasus
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Sea of Azov
Crimea
Sebastopol
Odessa
Danube
Mouths of the Danube
Bosphorus
Dardanelles
Gallipoli
Constantinople
Sea of Marmara
Smyrna
Rhodes
Crete
Cyprus
Syria
Palestine
Egypt
Alexandria
Cairo
Suez
Red Sea
Arabia
Persia
Mesopotamia
Baghdad
Bussorah
Persian Gulf
Aden
Abyssinia
Nubia
Khartoum
Tripoli
Barca
Fezzan
Ghadames
Algeria
Tunis
Constantine
Oran
Algiers
Tangier
Fez
Morocco
Atlas Mts.
Sahara
Timbuctoo
Senegal
Gambia
Sierra Leone
Liberia
Ivory Coast
Gold Coast
Dahomey
Niger
Lake Chad
Bornu
Kanem
Darfur
Kordofan
Sennaar
Abyssinia
Red Sea
Aden
Zanzibar
Mozambique
Madagascar
Cape Colony
Cape Town
Natal
Transvaal
Orange Free State
Basutoland
Zambesi
Victoria Falls
Lake Ngami
Damaraland
Great Namaqua Land
Walfisch Bay
Angola
Benguela
Congo
Loanda
Cameroons
Fernando Po
Gaboon
Equator
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
Arctic Circle
Antarctic Circle
Greenwich
Long. East 10 of Greenwich
Long. West 5
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paved the way, a federation of a strong kind—a Bundesstaat, not a Staatenbund. With the *South-German States* Prussia had already concluded treaties, which, for defensive purposes at least, made Germany one. Hesse-Darmstadt entered the confederation for that part of her territory which lay north of the Main. On the other hand, the connexion between Germany and the duchies of *Luxemburg* and *Limburg* (see above, Plate XIII) was severed, though Prussian troops still garrisoned the fortress of Luxemburg. Napoleon III, having failed to get any compensation out of Prussia for the loss of relative power due to recent events, sought it by an arrangement with the King of the Netherlands for the purchase of Luxemburg and its annexation to France. The intervention of Prussia obliged the king to cancel the bargain, and after a conference in London (May, 1867) the Prussian troops were withdrawn, and the neutrality of the duchy guaranteed by the Powers. Luxemburg, however, remained a member of the German Zollverein. Shortly afterwards another step towards German unity was taken, in the reconstitution of the Zollverein and the establishment of a 'customs parliament.'

On the other hand, the effect of the war upon the Austrian Empire was to loosen the tie which bound its component parts together. The long-standing quarrel between *Austria* and *Hungary* was brought to a close by the recognition of their political equality. By the Compromise (Ausgleich) of 1867, the centralized imperial government came to an end, and the empire fell into two parts, Austria and Hungary, each of these being in itself a bundle of more or less incongruous elements; but unity in foreign relations was secured by the personal tie of the sovereign, an imperial ministry, and a joint representative body (the Delegations). The kingdom of Hungary, which does not include Galicia, Bukovina, Dalmatia, or Bosnia, is bordered by a pink line on the map.

The events related above led on directly to the Franco-German War. Neither the French nation nor its ruler, Napoleon III, was able to tolerate the diminution of prestige and relative power resulting from the creation of a united Germany, and, to a less extent, of a united Italy, on their borders, even though the latter was largely Napoleon's own work. A conflict, sooner or later, was seen to be inevitable, and both sides prepared for it—Napoleon, by endeavouring to popularize his government and to secure the alliance of Austro-Hungary and Italy; Prussia, by perfecting her military arrangements and securing the benevolent neutrality of Russia. When the war broke out (July 19, 1870), France was still unprepared, and without active allies. The immediate occasion of the war was the refusal of the King of Prussia to undertake that the candidature of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern for the crown of Spain, withdrawn owing to French protests, should never be revived. The triviality of this pretext, however heightened by malicious exaggerations or accidental circumstances, shows the strength of the forces which on each side were making for war.

Within six weeks of the outbreak of war, the French regular army was destroyed, taken, or cooped up within fortresses by a series of battles culminating in the defeat of Sedan (September 1). Three weeks later the Germans invested Paris, where a provisional government had been set up, on the fall of the Second Empire (September 4). Negotiations now took place, but Jules Favre was unwilling to cede 'an inch of soil or a stone of the fortresses,' and the struggle went on. The rest of the war consisted of the siege of Paris, and the repulse of the various armies which endeavoured to raise the siege or to cut the German communications. Strassburg fell on September 28, and Metz surrendered on October 27. The latter event, by setting free a large German army, practically decided the fate of Paris, though the capital still held out for three months longer. It capitulated on January 28, 1871, when an armistice was declared. The preliminaries of peace were signed at Versailles on February 26, and the final treaty was made at Frankfurt on May 10, 1871.

By the Treaty of Frankfurt, France ceded to Germany Alsace, excepting Belfort, and a large part of Lorraine. The line of demarcation starts from near Redingen, on the south frontier of Luxemburg, whence it passes southward at some distance from the left bank of the Moselle, so as to include Thionville and Metz, with the surrounding districts, in German territory. It crosses the Moselle about twelve miles below Metz, following a south-east direction till it strikes the line of the Vosges, nearly due west of Strassburg. Thence it follows the crest of the mountains southwards, leaving Belfort at some distance on the French side, and meets the Swiss frontier a few miles east of Delle. The territory ceded to Germany in Alsace and Lorraine is shaded with blue lines.

Besides this great transfer of territory, which removed France altogether from the left bank of the Rhine, and made the Rhine a German river, the war of 1870–1871 had some other important consequences. (1) The German Empire was proclaimed on January 18, 1871, at Versailles. This was simply the extension of the North-German Confederation to the German states south of the Main, the constitution of the empire being practically the same as that of the Confederation. But it conferred great additional strength upon Germany, which now, through the hereditary character of the monarchy and its connexion with Prussia, the powers conferred upon the emperor and his chancellor (Reichskanzler), and the preponderance of Prussia in Germany, is in some respects the strongest federation in existence. (2) The French troops having been withdrawn from *Rome* (August, 1870), the Italian forces, after a brief struggle with the Papal army, entered the city (September 20), which soon afterwards became the capital of Italy. The remaining Papal territory was annexed, and Italy thus at length became one. The annexed territory is shaded with buff lines. (3) Taking advantage of the temporary disablement of one of the chief signatories of the Treaty of Paris (1856), and of the pre-occupation of other Powers in the Franco-German War, the emperor of Russia denounced the Treaty of Paris and the supplementary conventions, 'so far as they restricted his sovereign rights in the *Black Sea*' (October 31, 1870). This declaration, which makes no change in the map, was acquiesced in by the Powers after a conference (March 13, 1871). The Black Sea was henceforward no longer neutralized, and it became open to Russia to fortify Sebastopol and other ports, and to keep any number of ships of war in the Black Sea; but the Porte retained the right, and remained under the obligation, to close the straits to ships of war so long as Turkey itself is at peace.

The importance of this advance on the part of Russia made itself apparent a few years later, when the recurrence

of troubles in the Balkan peninsula led to the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–1878. The administrative reforms promised by Turkey in 1856 had not been carried into effect. In *Rumania*, already united (see above, Plate XIII), an hereditary prince, Karl Anton of Hohenzollern, had been recognized by the Porte in 1866. In 1867 the Turkish troops were finally withdrawn from the fortresses which they garrisoned in *Servia*. In 1864 the kingdom of *Greece* was enlarged by the addition of the *Ionian Islands*, for the past fifty years under the protectorate of Great Britain. A revolt in Crete, supported by the continental Greeks, nearly led to a war between Greece and Turkey (1866–1868). The growing disorder of the Turkish Empire culminated in revolts in Bosnia and Herzegovina, which began in 1875, and which spread the flame of war throughout European Turkey. The Powers, being at cross-purposes, failed to allay the disturbance; the insurrection spread to Bulgaria, and in 1876 Servia and Montenegro declared war on Turkey. On the defeat of Servia, Russia interposed, and more conferences took place; but the Porte, believing that British support would be as firm as in 1854, rejected all proposals. Thereupon Russia declared war (April, 1877); Rumania followed a little later. After great bloodshed the Russians reached Adrianople (January, 1878), where an armistice was signed (January 31). On March 3 peace was made at San Stefano.

Had the Treaty of San Stefano remained valid, the Turk would have almost entirely lost his hold on Europe. Rumania, Servia, and Montenegro were declared independent, and the two latter received large accessions of territory. A new autonomous but tributary state was created, called Bulgaria, which would have absorbed nearly all the rest of Turkey in Europe; its intended boundary is indicated by a broken blue line on the map, where it does not coincide with the line of the Danube or with the boundaries of Servia, Rumania, and Eastern Rumelia. Bosnia and Herzegovina were to become autonomous, and changes were to be introduced in Epirus, Crete, and other parts of the empire; while the Sultan ceded to Russia the Dobrudzha (the part of Bulgaria between the northward bend of the Danube and the Black Sea), and large districts in Asiatic Turkey.

But this treaty was altered, in several important particulars, by a congress of the Powers, which agreed upon the Treaty of Berlin, July 13, 1878. By this treaty *Bulgaria* was constituted an autonomous and tributary principality, but its area, as fixed by the Treaty of San Stefano, was reduced by about half. The new southern and western frontier, indicated by a red line, followed the crest of the Balkans from the Black Sea to a point about forty miles east of Sofia; then, curving round in a wide horse-shoe, so as to include that town but to exclude Pirot, it turned north-west again to meet the old Servian frontier about thirty miles north of Pirot. South of the Balkans a new state, called *Eastern Rumelia*, was constituted, with administrative autonomy, but under the direct political and military control of the Sultan. Its southern and western frontier, indicated by a red line, was so drawn as to restore to the full dominion of Turkey a large district north-west of Constantinople, and all the country (Macedonia, &c.) to the west of the spur of the Balkans called the Despoto Dagh. *Russia* recovered the territory east of the Pruth and north of the Danube which she had lost in 1856, *Rumania* retaining the Danube delta, and receiving the Dobrudzha north of a line (marked red in the map) drawn from the bend of the Danube to the Black Sea. *Austria-Hungary* took over the military and political control of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which thus became, to all intents and purposes, part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The independence of *Rumania*, *Servia*, and *Montenegro* was recognized, Servia receiving a considerable extension southwards along the Morava, while Montenegro was nearly doubled in area, and obtained an outlet to the sea at Antivari. The territory ceded to Austria-Hungary is shaded pink; that ceded to Russia is shaded yellow; while the other cessions are shaded green.

The territory ceded to Russia in *Asia Minor* was reduced by the restoration to Turkey of Bayezid and other districts, but Russia retained a large and important tract, including Kars, Ardahan, and Batum. *Great Britain*, by a treaty with Turkey (June 4, 1878), received the island of Cyprus as the condition of a defensive alliance against Russia. *Greece* was to obtain a rectification of frontier, to be determined later.

Thus the Treaty of Berlin, though not going so far as that of San Stefano, made a revolution in the conditions of the Balkan peninsula, and freed large districts from Turkish rule. But the work of the Powers was not final; it subsequently underwent some important extensions or modifications. In 1879 the area of *Herzegovina*, subject to Austrian rule, was enlarged by the addition of the Sandjak of Novibazar; the pink line in the map marks the full extent of Austrian possessions. The dominions of *Montenegro* were increased by the cession of Dulcigno and its district, extorted from the Porte by the Powers in January, 1881. In the same year the vague stipulations of the Treaty of Berlin in favour of *Greece* were carried out through the cession of Thessaly by Turkey (May 24, 1881). The new frontier (marked red in the map) ran northward from the Gulf of Arta, including the town of that name, to a point north-east of Janina, whence it followed the crest of the main chain of the mountains eastward to the sea. Still more important was the change made in the relations of *Bulgaria* and *Eastern Rumelia*. The separation of these states, principally the work of Great Britain, proved itself untenable; and in September, 1885, Eastern Rumelia united itself with Bulgaria under Prince Alexander of Battenberg. This union, which led to an indecisive war between Bulgaria and Servia, was practically recognized by Turkey and the Powers (April 5, 1886), though Eastern Rumelia still remains theoretically under Turkish sovereignty.

In order to bring the territorial changes in Europe down to 1897, it only remains to add that on July 1, 1890, Great Britain ceded the island of *Heligoland* to Germany as a compensation for some advantages in Africa; that in November, 1890, by the death of William III, King of the Netherlands, the union between the Netherlands and *Luxemburg* came to an end, and Adolphus, Duke of Nassau, assumed the government of the duchy; that the repeated revolts of *Crete* at length led to its semi-emancipation from Turkey (1897); and that the Graeco-Turkish War of 1897 resulted in a slight alteration of the northern frontier of *Greece*, conferring military advantages on Turkey, but too small in respect of area to be noted on this map. They will be found on Plate LXXXII.

The accompanying map gives the politico-geographical condition of Europe in 1863, with an indication of the changes which have taken place since that date.

G. W. PROTHERO.

XV

ROMAN BRITAIN

XV.

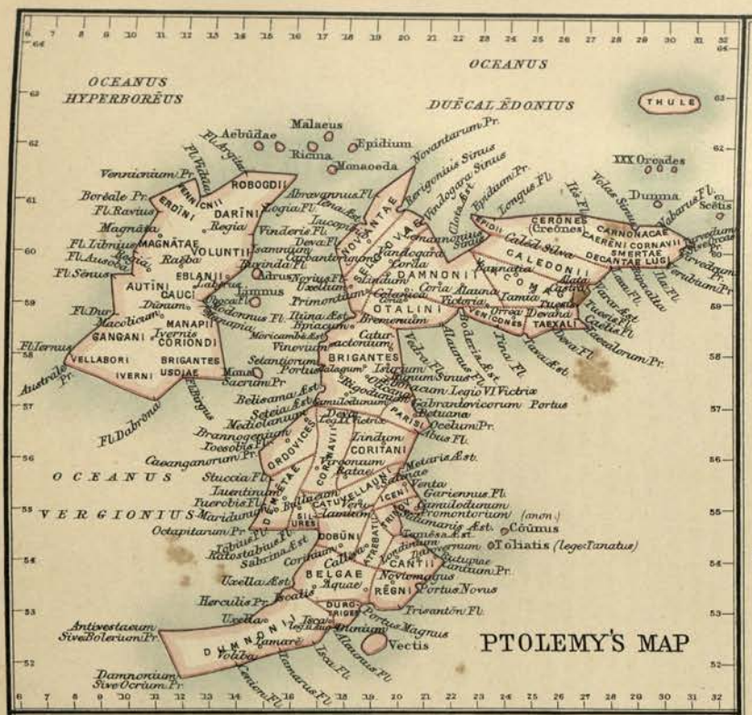
ROMAN BRITAIN.

CAESAR'S conquest of Gaul (B.C. 58–50), and his two expeditions to Britain made in the course of it (B.C. 55, 54), brought the island into direct relations with Rome. The tribes of the south-east became nominal vassals of the Roman State, and felt the influences of Roman trade and civilization. A century later (A.D. 43) CLAUDIUS commenced the actual conquest. His pretext, according to Dio, was an appeal from a British prince who had been driven out by a rival, and the pretext may well be the real reason for the undertaking. It is probable that about A.D. 40 an anti-Roman party became dominant in South-East Britain, and that the Roman government took a decisive step to prevent disturbance in Gaul. Accordingly (A.D. 43) A. Plautius landed, probably in Kent, with some 40,000 men, and for ten years, while Claudius was alive, the conquest was vigorously prosecuted. By A.D. 53 the invaders seem to have occupied both the south-east, which had been previously Romanized, and the Midlands, which offer few physical obstacles, while in the west they had reached and exploited the Mendip lead-mines. They had, however, in Roman fashion, left parts of the conquered area in the control of vassal chieftains. For towns they had a *colonia* of veterans, and an *ara Claudii* (typical of State worship) at *Camulodūnum*, while the *municipium* of *Verulamium* and the trading settlement of *Londinium* were probably already in existence, though we do not hear of them till A.D. 62. For fortresses they appear to have held *Lindum*, *Deva*, *Isca Silurum*, and, for a while, *Viroconium*. After the accession of NERO (A.D. 54–67) the advance stops. Suetonius Paulinus reached Anglesey in 62, but the only striking incident in the reign is the revolt of the vassal queen BOUDICCA. Here, as elsewhere, VESPASIAN restored vigour. One governor crushed the Brigantes, another the Silures, while the third, Agricola (A.D. 78–85), completed the conquest of England and Wales, entered the Scotch lowlands, and is said to have fortified the isthmus between the Firths of Clyde and Forth. He also encouraged the Romanization of the province; the Roman forum and groundplan of *Calleva* may date from his governorship. With him the advance ceases. DOMITIAN was unwilling or unable to spend men and money on distant and unprofitable conquests. In 122 HADRIAN built his Wall from the Tyne to the Solway, and this Wall, with a few outlying fortresses, forms henceforward the practical frontier of the province. In 143 ANTONINUS PIUS built a turf wall from Clyde to Forth, but the land between the two walls was only occupied by one (or two) military roads and the fortresses along them, and the wall of Pius was soon abandoned or lost; the country north of Hadrian's wall remained native in sentiment, as in art. As the Roman stopped, the barbarian advanced. Under the emperor COMMODUS (176–192) there were serious troubles; the fortresses north of Hadrian's Wall, and even the Wall itself, may have been temporarily lost. The evil was only aggravated by the appearance of Albinus, governor of Britain, among the pretenders to the Empire in 193, and SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS found it needful to resume the offensive in Britain. He invaded *Caledonia* in person in 209, recovered *Bremenium*, Netherby, and other fortresses lying just north of the Wall, and is said (perhaps wrongly) to have built a wall himself. Death cut short his work, but it was effective. Hadrian's Wall was successfully held till at least the middle of the fourth century. But the pressure of Irish, Pict, and Saxon, on west and north and south, the rise of pretenders like MAXIMUS (383–8), and the troubles of the continental Empire, weakened the Roman hold on the island. Early in the fifth century Britain ceased practically to belong to the Empire.

The details of the Roman administration of Britain are somewhat imperfectly known to us. The province remained one till A.D. 210, when Severus formed two provinces of uncertain area, *Britannia Inferior*, including Eburācum and the Wall, and *Superior*, including Deva and Isca, the dividing line probably being drawn from the Mersey to the Humber; it is doubtful if this division remained in force long after the death of Severus. In 297 it was subdivided by Diocletian, like the rest of the Empire, and four provinces were formed, *Prima* (which included Cirencester), *Secunda*, *Flavia Caesariensis*, and *Maxima* (the two latter probably in the north), but their frontiers are wholly unknown. In 369 a fifth province, *Valentia*, was formed, but its position is equally uncertain. The governor of the undivided province was a *legatus pro praetore*, who ranked high among provincial governors, and as commander of a large army was regularly a *consularis*; this pre-eminence continued after the division of the province. The garrison of the island, during the second and third centuries, comprised (*a*) three legions stationed at Eburacum (vi), Deva (xx), and Isca (ii Augusta), and (*b*) a strong force of 'auxiliary' cohorts and *alae*, recruited largely in Germany, stationed along the Wall and the roads leading to it. The district between the Humber and the Tyne (conjecturally Britannia Inferior) was almost wholly given up to these troops, and formed a vast military frontier. The south was less heavily garrisoned; the legions at Deva and Isca secured two inlets into Britain against the Irish, and in the fourth century the nine forts along the 'Saxon shore' (from Branodūnum to, perhaps, Porchester) defended the south-east against the Saxons.

Beside this military element, the civil element was comparatively insignificant. *Coloniae* were founded, so far as we know, only at Camulodunum (A.D. 52), Glevum (A.D. 95–7), Lindum, Eburacum; a *municipium* only at Verulamium; and none of these towns flourished like the Roman municipal foundations on the continent. A certain number of small Romano-British towns, however, rose to some prosperity, though we have no evidence that they obtained municipal status: such are Ratae, Corinium, Aquae Sulis, Venta Silurum, and especially the towns of the early Romanized south-east, Calleva, Venta Belgarum, Regni, &c. There were 'villas' in abundance, notably in Mid Gloucestershire and West Sussex, and the mass of the native population was perhaps grouped round these local centres for purposes of trade or agriculture.

The native population under Roman rule was not wholly Romanized. The Brigantes remained unquiet till the end of the second century. During the second and third centuries British recruits were rarely utilized for the garrison of Britain, but were sent to Germany, which, in turn, provided troops for Britain. In the third and fourth centuries Irish immigration probably increased the Celtic elements of the west coast. But the richer classes and the dwellers in towns were Romanized, and at the commencement of the fifth century the higher culture and political institutions of Britain were predominantly Latin. The resistance to the Picts, Scots, and Saxons was carried on by a Romano-British population. It is some credit to Roman rule that this resistance, though disparaged by


OCEANUS HYPERBOREUS
OCEANUS
DUĒCALĒDONIUS
THULE
XXX Orcades
Dumna
Scetis
Berigonius Sinus
Novantarum Pr.
Aebūdae
Malaeus
Epidium
Ricina
Manaoeda
Vernicōnium Pr.
Borēale Pr.
Fl. Ravius
Fl. Abrigus
Fl. Tribius
Fl. Ausōnius
Fl. Sēnus
Fl. Dur
Fl. Ternus
Fl. Dabronus
Fl. Abravannus
Fl. Longus
Fl. Deva
Fl. Itunus
Fl. Lucopibia
Fl. Boderia
Fl. Tuesis
Fl. Vedra
Fl. Trisantonius
Fl. Tavus
Fl. Alaunus
Fl. Tamia
Fl. Victoria
Fl. Itunus Æst.
Fl. Moricambe Æst.
Fl. Belisama Æst.
Fl. Setia Æst.
Fl. Medio lanum
Fl. Tuerobis Fl.
Fl. Sabrina Æst.
Fl. Tuesis Æst.
Fl. Tavus Æst.
Fl. Alaunus Æst.
Fl. Deva Fl.
Fl. Abus Fl.
Fl. Metaria Æst.
Fl. Garienus Fl.
Fl. Trisantonius Fl.
Fl. Tesa Fl.
Fl. Isca Fl.
Fl. Venta
Fl. Itunus Fl.
Fl. Vedra Fl.
Fl. Tuesis Fl.
Fl. Tavus Fl.
Fl. Alaunus Fl

XV. *ROMAN BRITAIN.*

Gildas, was in fact at least as desperate and prolonged as that shown to the barbarians elsewhere in the Empire.

Of the accompanying maps the principal one has been constructed with the idea of providing a map suitable to students of Roman Britain, so far as such a map can be drawn up in the present state of our knowledge. The names and roads contained in it profess only to be a selection of the most certain and most interesting. Ptolemy's Map has been adapted, by permission, with very slight alteration from the excellent map communicated by Mr. H. Bradley to the London Society of Antiquaries (*Archaeologia*, xlviii. 1884). The map of Hadrian's Wall will explain itself, so far as explanation of the complicated mural problems is at present possible.

The following list of places contains all the names in the larger map and in that of Hadrian's Wall, with a few notes. Tribes are distinguished by small capitals. Modern names are printed in italics, those of which the Roman name is unknown being marked with an obelus. The Wall is indicated by W.

Aballava. Fort, now Papcastle (Cumb.).
Abus. River, perhaps the Humber.
Aesica. Great Chesters on W.
†*Adel.* Near Leeds (Yorks.).
†*Alchester.* Near Bicester (Oxon.).
Amboglanna. Fort at Birdoswald on W.
Anderida. Fort on the Littus Saxonicum, at Pevensey (Suss.).
Aquae Sulis. Bath.
†*Ardoch.* Fort north of Antonine's Wall.
ATREBATES. In Berks. and Hants.[1]
BELGAE. In Wilts. and Hants.
†*Bewcastle.* Fort north of W.
†*Bignor.* Large villa near Chichester (Regni).
Blatum Bulgium[2]. Fort at Birrens, north of W., near Ecclefecchan.
Bodotria. (Boděria in Ptolemy). Firth of Forth.
Borcovicium. Fort at Housesteads on W.
†*Bossens.* Small fort in Cornwall, probably occupied temporarily.
†*Bowness.* Fort on W.
†*Brading.* Large villa (I. of Wight).
Branodūnum. Fort on the Littus Saxonicum, now Brancaster (Norfolk).
Bravoniācum (or Brovonacae). Fort, now Brougham (Cumb.).
†*Brecon.* Fort at Ygaer, near Brecon.
Bremenium. Fort north of W., now High Rochester.
Bremetennācum. Fort, now Ribchester (Lanc.).
BRIGANTES. In Yorkshire, &c.
Brocavum. Fort, now Kirby Thore (Cumb.).
Brough (1) Fort in Derbyshire, perhaps Anavio[3].
„ (2) *See* Verterae.
† „ (3) On Humber.
†*Burgh-on-Sands.* Fort on W.
Buxton. In Derbyshire, perhaps Aquae.
Calcaria. Tadcaster, s. of York.
Calleva. Silchester, Romano-British town of the Atrebates.
Cambodūnum. Fort at Slack, near Huddersfield (S. Yorks.).
Camboricum (more probably Camboritum = crooked ford). Probably Grantchester, near Cambridge[4].
Camulodūnum. Colchester, a *colonia*.
Canovium. Fort at Caerhŷn, near Conway, N. Wales.
CANTII. In Kent[5].
†*Cappuck.* Fort in Scotland, near Jedburgh.
†*Castlesteads.* Fort on W.
Cataractonium. Fort in N. Yorks., now Catterick.
CATUVELLAUNI. Tribe in eastern Midlands.
Causennae. Now Ancaster (Linc.).
†*Chedworth.* Large villa near Cirencester.
†*Chester-le-street.* Fort south of W.
†*Chesterford.* Town in Essex.
Cilurnum. Fort on W., now Chesters.
Clausentum. Bittern, near Southampton.
Condercum. Fort on W., now Benwell, near Newcastle.
Corinium. Cirencester, town of the Dobuni, also called Durocornovium.
CORITANI. In Leicestershire.
CORNAVII. In Shropshire.
Corstopitum. Fort, &c. near W., now Corbridge.
†*Cramond.* Fort near Edinburgh.
Cunetio. Village near Marlborough[6].
Damnonium Prom. The Lizard.
Danum. Fort, probably Doncaster (S. Yorks.).
DECEANGI[7]. Small tribe in Flintshire.
DEMĔTAE. In S. Wales (later Dyfydd).
†*Derby.* Village (in the suburbs).
Deva. Fortress of Twentieth Legion, now Chester; river, now Dee.
DOBŪNI[8]. In Gloucestershire; *see* Corinium.
†*Dorchester.* Town (Oxon.).
Dorchester. Town (Dorset); *see* Durnovaria.
†*Drumburgh.* Fort on W.
Dubrae. Dover, fort on the Littus Saxonicum.
DUMNONII (or DAMNONII). In Cornwall[9].
†*Dunwich.* In Suffolk.
Durnovaria. Town of Durotriges, now Dorchester (Dorset).
Durobrīvae. (1) Castor and Chesterton on the Nen; (2) Rochester (Kent).
Durocornovium. *See* Corinium.
Durolipons. Probably Godmanchester (Hunts.).
DUROTRIGES[10]. In Dorset.
Durovernum. Town of the Cantii, now Canterbury.
Ebchester. Fort south of W.
Eburācum. York, a *colonia* and fortress of the Sixth Legion.
[Etocētum. Incorrect spelling for Letocētum (Lichfield).]
†*Felixstowe.* Perhaps a fort, on the Essex coast.
Gariannonum. Fort on the Littus Saxonicum, now Borough Castle on the Yare (Norf.).
Gessoriācum. Boulogne, later Bononia[11].
Glevum. Gloucester, a *colonia* established by Nerva.
Gobannium. Abergavenny (Monm.).
†*Gretabridge.* Fort in N. Yorks.
Habitancium (or Habitancum). The probable name of a fort at Risingham, north of W.
†*Hard Knot.* Fort in Cumberland.
Hunnum. Fort on W., now Halton Chesters.
ICENI. In Norfolk and Suffolk.
†*Ilchester.* Town in Somerset.
Ilkley. Town or fort in Yorkshire, perhaps Olicana (Ptolemy).
†*Irchester.* Fort (?) on the Nen.
Isca Dumnoniorum. Exeter.
Isca Silurum. Caerleon-on-Usk (Monm.), fortress of the Second Legion.
Isurium. Town at Aldborough (Boroughbridge) near York.
Itūna. Solway[12].
Ivernia. Ireland.
†*Lancaster.* Fort.
Lanchester. Fort in Durham, probably Longovicium.
Lavatrae. Fort, now Bowes (N. Yorks.).
Letocētum. Wall, near Lichfield[13].
Leucārum. Loughor (Welsh Llychwr), S. Wales.
Lindum. Lincoln, a *colonia* (first a fortress).
Londinium. London (in fourth century Augusta).
Luguvallium. Fort and small town near W., now Carlisle (old form Caerluel).
†*Lydney.* Temple of Nodon, in Forest of Dean.
MAEATAE. In Scotch Lowlands.
Magnae[14], (1) Fort on W, now Carvoran.
„ (2) Small town, now Kenchester (Heref.).
†*Malton.* Town in E. Yorks.
Mancunium. Fort at Manchester.
Manduessedum. Mancetter, in the Midlands.
Maridūnum. Caermarthen, S. Wales.
†*Melandra Castle.* Fort between Manchester and Brough (1), near Glossop.
Metaris. Probably the Wash.
Mona. Anglesea (also used for the Isle of Man).
Monapia. Isle of Man (? Menapia).
†*Moresby.* Fort on the Cumberland coast.
Moricambe. Perhaps Morecambe Bay, Lancashire (the present name is modern).
†*Netherby.* Fort north of W.
†*Newstead.* Fort north of W. (near Melrose).
Nidum. Neath, S. Wales.
Ocĕlum Prom. Perhaps Spurnhead.
Octapitarum. St. David's Head.
Old Carlisle. Fort in Cumberland possibly Petriana.
ORDOVĪCES[15]. In North and Mid Wales.
Othonae. Fort on the Littus Saxonicum, now Bradwell, Essex: Anglo-Saxon Ithanceaster.
Overborough. Fort in Lancashire, perhaps Galacum.
Pons Aelii. Fort on W., now Newcastle-on-Tyne.
†*Porchester.* Fort, possibly Portus Adurni on the Littus Saxonicum.
Portus Gabrantovicorum. Perhaps Filey, Yorks.
Portus Lemanae. Fort on the Littus Saxonicum, now Lymne in Kent.
Procolitia. Fort on W. now Carrawbrough.
Ratae. Town of the Coritani, now Leicester.
†*Ravenhill.* Fort (fourth century), on Yorks. coast.
Regni (or Regnum)[16]. Town, now Chichester (Sussex).
Regulbium. Fort of the Littus Saxonicum, now Reculver.
Rutupiae. Fort of the Littus Saxonicum, now Richborough.
Sabrīna. River Severn.
†*Sarn Helen.* Name of Roman road in Wales.
Segedūnum. Fort on W., now Wallsend.
Segelocum[17]. Near Lincoln, now Littleborough.
Segontium[18]. Fort, now Carnarvon (N. Wales).
SILURES. In S. Wales and Monmouthshire.
Sorbiodūnum. Old Sarum[19], near Salisbury.
†*South Shields.* Fort at mouth of Tyne.
Spinae. Speen, near Newbury, Berkshire.
†*Stanegate.* Road south of W. and parallel to it.
†*Stanwix.* Fort on W.
Tanatus. Isle of Thanet (Kent).
Thamēsa[20]. River Thames.
TRINOVANTES. In Suffolk and Essex.
Trisantona. Perhaps the name of the Trent and of other British rivers.
Uxellodūnum. Fort in Cumb., near Maryport.
Vectis. Isle of Wight.
Venonae. High Cross, Staff.
Venta Belgarum. Town, now Winchester.
Venta Icenorum. Town near Norwich.
Venta Silurum. Town, now Caerwent, near Caerleon (Isca).
Verterae. Fort, now Brough-under-Stainmore (Westmorland).
Verulamium. Said by Tacitus to be a *municipium*, near St. Albans.
Vindobala. Fort on W., now Rutchester.
Vindogladia. Village, now Woodyates (Dorset).
Vindolana. Fort near W., now Chesterholm.
Vinovia. Fort, now Binchester (Durham).
Viroconium (possibly more correctly Vriconium). Wroxeter.
Voreda. Fort south of Carlisle, now Plumpton Wall.
†*Wilderspool.* Fort (Cheshire).
†*Windermere.* Fort (Westmorland).
†*Woodchester.* Villa in Gloucestershire.

F. HAVERFIELD.

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[1] The Segontiaci (see note[16]) and Bibroci (? Berks) of Caesar may be clans of this tribe.

[2] Perhaps more correctly Blatobulgium.

[3] Compare the river name Noe.

[4] The name Cambridge, however, has nothing to do with Camboricum.

[5] The Bodūni, conquered A.D. 43, may be a clan of this tribe.

[6] Hence perhaps Kennet.

[7] The form of the name (Deceangi, Decangi, Ceangi) is uncertain.

[8] Some would spell Dobunni. Magnae (2) may have also been one of their towns.

[9] The name recurs in Scotland (Ptolemy).

[10] Hence Dorset, Dorchester.

[11] Probably Caesar's portus Itius.

[12] Solway may be derived from Selgovae (Ptolemy): Ituna may survive in Eden.

[13] The first half of the present name is derived from the ancient Celtic name ('Greywood').

[14] The name occurs only in abl. Magnis: Magnae is accepted as nom. in 'C.I.L.' vii, but Professor Rhŷs connects the word with 'maen,' a stone (masc.), and suggests Magni. The Roman name of Kenchester may survive in 'Magonsete,' the oldest form of the name of the West-Saxon Magasaetas, who occupied Herefordshire.

[15] The name probably survives in Dinorwig, near Snowdon.

[16] The name might possibly be the Latin *regnum*, referring to the vassal kingdom of Cogidubnus.

[17] Incorrectly spelt Agelocum.

[18] The name recurs at Calleva (see note[1]).

[19] The name Sarum arose from misreading of a contraction, not from the ancient name.

[20] The Roman spelling and the quantity of the *e* vary.

XVI

ENGLAND AND WALES BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST

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IN the early part of the fifth century, when province after province of the Roman Empire succumbed to the attacks of the Germanic hordes and Rome itself was captured, the North German sea-rovers, known to Roman and Celt by the collective name of Saxons, converted their plundering expeditions to the coasts of Britain into systematic invasion and settlement. The only contemporary account of this conquest that has come down to us is the brief note of a Gaulish chronicler under 441–2, that Britain, after various calamities, came under the dominion of the Saxons[1]. The historian Procopius, writing in the following century, describes Britain as peopled by the Britons, the Angli, and the Frisians. The English account preserved by Beda is that the Germanic settlers consisted of Angles, Saxons, and Iuti, Iutae (an obscure tribe whom it is difficult to connect either in name or in language with the Jutes of Jutland). The name of the Iuti, who settled in Kent, the Isle of Wight, and the south part of Hampshire, soon vanishes from use. The men of Wight and Hants became merged with the West-Saxons, who were destined, after great vicissitudes, to establish their hegemony over, and eventually to extend the rule of their kings to, the other Germanic kingdoms. In addition to the kingdom of *Wessex*, the Saxons also occupied *Sussex*, the kingdom of the South-Saxons (*Sūð-Seaxe*); *Essex* and *Middlesex* (*Middel-Seaxe*), the kingdom of the East-Saxons (*Ēast-Seaxe*), which included part or the whole of co. Hertford; and probably Surrey (*Sūðrige*), which early became an integral part of Wessex. The Angles (*Engle*), who bestowed their name upon the land and nation, occupied the country between the Humber and the Firth of Forth under the name of Northumbrians (*Norðan-Hymbre*), this district being divided into the two kingdoms of *Deira* and *Bernicia*. They also held the centre of the country, where they became known as 'Mercians' or 'March-men' (*Mierce*), a name that must originally have been conferred upon the most westerly settlers in Mid-England, but which, after the incorporation of the Middle Angles, the South Angles, the Hwicce (who were probably West-Saxon by origin), and of other small kingdoms, became extended to the inhabitants of the whole of central England. In Norfolk and Suffolk the Angles founded the kingdom of the East Angles. Between them and the Mercians the Anglian dwellers in the Fens (the *Gyrwe*, Latin *Gyrwii*) formed an early kingdom (occasionally divided into two, the North and the South Gyrwii), which in later times was absorbed by Mercia, but which was East Anglian in Beda's time. *Lindsey*, an Anglian kingdom in central and northern Lincolnshire, whose fate was closely linked with that of *Northumbria* in early times, was annexed by the Mercians, although it was long remembered as distinct from *Mercia*.

From the internecine struggles of the numerous small kingdoms formed by the invaders, some of which perished without leaving a record of their extent or situation, or, no doubt, in some cases even of their names, there gradually emerged (1) the great kingdom of Northumbria, once the repository of the learning of Western Europe, (2) the Mercian kingdom, (3) East Anglia, (4) Essex, (5) Wessex, (6) Kent, and (7) Sussex. These kingdoms, the so-called Saxon 'Heptarchy,' were reduced to four by the Mercian annexation of Essex and Kent (which was subsequently transferred to Wessex), and the West-Saxon absorption of Sussex.

Such was the condition of the country in the ninth century, when it was overtaken by the terrible storm of the Danish invasions and settlements. Under the stress of this storm the kingdoms of Mercia, Northumbria, and East Anglia disappear, the two latter finally dying out in the tenth century, after a fitful existence as Danish kingdoms. At one time the West-Saxon kingdom seemed likely to share their fate, but the great and brave King ALFRED (871–899) by heroic exertions beat the Danes back from his kingdom and recovered Southern Mercia from their grasp. This portion of Mercia was committed to the Ealdorman Æthelweard, to whom Alfred gave his daughter Æthelflæd in marriage, and the Ealdorman and his wife revived the memory of the Mercian kingdom. After his death, Æthelflæd devoted herself with wonderful energy and success to driving the Danish power out of West Mercia, whilst her brother King EDWARD THE ELDER (900–924) operated with equal persistency and success on the eastern flank of the Danes. Æthelflæd died just before the two lines of conquest converged, and Edward, who was the last king to bear the title of 'King of the West Saxons,' succeeded in carrying his direct rule to the Humber. His son ÆTHELSTAN (925–939) brought Northumbria under his sway, and at the great victory of Brunanburh (937) defeated the great confederacy of the Danes, Scots, and Cumbrians. From this time the union was never really endangered, except for a brief period in the early part of the eleventh century, when, after the kingdom had passed to the illustrious and mighty Dane, King CNUT (1016–1036), Mercia and Northumbria were momentarily divided from Wessex under the short-lived rule of his worthless sons. But though subjected to the rule of the West-Saxon Kings, now Kings of England and Emperors of Britain, the old kingdoms of Northumbria, Mercia, and East Anglia were not kneaded into a political unit with Wessex, for they were until the Norman Conquest each under the rule of Ealdormen or Earls, who exercised semi-regal power. In the early part of the eleventh century the northern portion of Bernicia was ceded to the Scottish king, apparently by the act of Earl Eadwulf. Since then, with the exception of a few fluctuations of the Welsh border, the boundaries of England have remained stable.

The exceedingly scanty records of the history of Wales during this period do not enable us to get a clear view of the political divisions of the whole country at any given date. A map must be constructed, therefore, from much later evidence, which is unsatisfactory and often contradictory in nature. Under these circumstances it is somewhat improbable that we have avoided errors in laying down in the definite outlines of a map the shifting boundaries of the principalities.

[1] 'Chronica Gallica, a. CCCCLII,' ed. Mommsen ('Mon. Hist. Germ., Auctores Antiquissimi,' IX. i. 660): 'Brittanniae usque ad hoc tempus variis cladibus eventibusque latae [late vexatae, *em.* Mommsen] in dicionem Saxonum rediguntur.'

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LIST OF LOCAL NAMES WITH THEIR MODERN REPRESENTATIVES.

In the map English local names, which usually occur in the dative (locative) form with a preposition, are generally converted into the nominative, except where there is some doubt as to the form. In most cases the English names of districts refer grammatically to the men, not the land. This is represented in this list by adding 'inhabitants of' in parenthesis.

The names derived from Welsh sources are distinguished by adding *W.* The divisions of Wales are based principally upon the researches of Mr. Egerton Phillimore.

Abbandun. Abingdon, co. Berks.
Acemannesceaster. Bath, co. Somerset.
Acleah. Ockley, co. Surrey.
Ad Baruæ. Barrow, co. Lincoln.
Ad Caprae Caput. Gateshead, co. Durham.
Ad Gefrin. Yeavering, co. Northumberland.
Ad Lapidem. Stoneham, co. Hants.
Æbbercurnig. Abercorn, Linlithgowshire.
Æfene mutha. Mouth of the river Avon, cos. Gloucester and Somerset.
Ægelesburh. Aylesbury, co. Bucks.
Æscesdun. The Berkshire Downs.
Æthelingaieg. Athelney, co. Somerset.
Agmundernes. Amounderness (Hundred), co. Lancaster.
Alcuith. British name of Dumbarton.
Alne. River Aln, co. Northumberland.
Ambresburh. Amesbury, co. Wilts.
Andeferan, æt. Andover, co. Hants.
Andredes-leah *or* weald. A forest in Kent, South Surrey, North Sussex, and Hants.
Apuldre, æt. Appledore, co. Kent.
Ardudwy, *W.* Ardudwy, a commot of Gwynedd, co. Merioneth.
Arewe. River Orwell, co. Suffolk.
Arllechwed, *W.* Arllechwedd, a cantred of Gwynedd, co. Carnarvon.
Arvon, *W.* Arfon, a cantred of Gwynedd, co. Carnarvon.
Arwystli, *W.* Part of Gwynedd.
Ascanmynster. Axminster, cos. Devon and Dorset.
Assandun. Assington, co. Suffolk.
Australes Saxones. The South Saxons, *Sūð-Seaxe* (Sussex).
Baddanburh. Badbury, co. Dorset.
Badecanwiellon, to. Bakewell, co. Derby.
Bænesingtun. Bensington or Benson, co. Oxford.
Bancor, Bancornaburg } Bangor-ys-Coed, cos. Denbigh and Flint.
Bangor. Bangor, co. Carnarvon.
Baruæ, ad. Barrow, co. Lincoln.
Basingum, æt. Basing, co. Hants.
Bathan, Bathanceaster } Bath, co. Somerset.
Beamfleot. Benfleet, co. Essex.
Beardaneu, Beardanig } Bardney, co. Lincoln.
Bearda(n)stapol. Barnstaple, co. Devon.
Bearrucscir. Berkshire.
Bearwe, æt. Barrow, co. Lincoln.
Bebbanburh, Urbs Bebbae. Bamborough, co. Northumberland.
Bedanford. Bedford.
Bedanfordscir. Bedfordshire.
Bedcanford. Bedford?
Beoforlic. Beverley, co. York.
Beorhhamstede. Berkhampstead, co. Hertford.
Beornice, *Lat.* Bernicii. Inhabitants of Beornicia, northern half of Northumbria.
Berecingum, in. Barking, co. Essex.
Bernicii. *See* Beornice.
Bosanham. Bosham, co. Sussex.
Bradanford. Bradford-on-Avon, co. Wilts.
Bradan-relice *or* Steapan-relice, æt. ? Flatholme *or* Steepholme, in Bristol Channel (or Lundy Island).
Brecenanmere. ? Lake of Llangorse (Llyn Safaddu), co. Brecknock.
Breceniauc. Brecknockshire, excluding the Hundred of Builth.
Bregentford. Brentford, co. Middlesex.
Breodun. Bredon, co. Warwick.
Britford. Britford, co. Wilts.
Briudun. Bredon, co. Warwick.
Briuton. Bruton, co. Somerset.
Brunemue. Mouth of Burnham Harbour, co. Norfolk.
Brunnan-burh, Brunnan-weorc, Brunes-weorc } ? Brunswark or Birrenswark Hill, near Ecclefechan, co. Dumfries.
Brycg, Cwatbrycg. Bridgnorth, co. Salop.
Brycgstow. Bristol, co. Gloucester.
Brytland. Wales.
Buallt, Built, *W.* An ancient principality, now the Hundred of Builth, co. Brecknock.
Buccingaham. Buckingham.
Buccingahamscir. Buckinghamshire.
Burh. Peterborough, co. Northampton.
Buttingtun. Buttington, co. Montgomery.
Byferesstan. Beverstone, co. Gloucester.
Bylgesleg. Billingsley, co. Salop.
Cællwic. Callington, co. Cornwall.
Calne, æt. Calne, co. Wilts.
Campodono, in. ? Slack, near Stainland, co. York.
Candida Casa. Whithorn, Wigtownshire.
Cantia. Kent.
Cantwarabyrig. Canterbury.
Carlegion. Chester.
Cartmel. Cartmel, co. Lancaster.
Cataracta, *Eng.* Cetreht. Catterick, co. York.
Ceaster. Chester.
Ceasterford. Castleford, co. York.
Cedweli, *W.* A commot of Ystrad Tywi.
Cent, Centlond. Kent.
Ceolesig. Cholsey, co. Berks.
Cereticiaun, *W.* Ceredigion, an ancient principality (Cardiganshire).
Cerniu, *W.* Cornwall.
Cerotæsei. Chertsey, co. Surrey.
Cetreht. Catterick, co. York.
Cicc. St. Ossyth (formerly Chich), co. Essex.
Ciltern. Chiltern Hills, co. Oxford.
Cingestun. Kingston, co. Surrey.
Cippanhamme, æt. Chippenham, co. Wilts.
Cirenceaster. Cirencester, co. Gloucester.
Cissan[cæstir], Cisseceaster } Chichester, co. Sussex.
Civitas Legionum. Chester.
Clastburh. Glasbury, cos. Radnor and Brecknock.
Cnobheresburg. ? Burgh Castle, co. Suffolk.
Cofantreo. Coventry, co. Warwick.
Colneceaster. Colchester, co. Essex.
Coludesburh. Coldingham, Berwickshire.
Colunwy, *W.* Clun, Lordship of, co. Salop.
Corabrycg. Corbridge, co. Northumberland.
Corfesgeat. Corfe, co. Dorset.
Cornoguatlaun, *W.* Carnwyllon, a commot of Ystrad Tywi.
Cornwealas. Cornwall (the inhabitants of).
Cosham. Cosham, co. Hants.
Creccagelad. Cricklade, co. Wilts.
Crecganford. Crayford, co. Kent.
Cridiantun. Crediton, co. Devon.
Crucern. Crewkerne, co. Somerset.
Cruland. Crowland, co. Lincoln.
Cumberland. Cumberland (and S.W. Scotland?).
Cwatbrycg. Bridgnorth, co. Salop.
Cwicelmeshlæw. Cuckhamsley Hills, Ilsley Down, co. Berks.
Cymenesora. In Selsey, co. Sussex (? Keymor Farm, near Siddlesham).
Cyneburgeceaster. Castor, co. Northampton.
Cynemæresford. Kempsford, co. Gloucester.
Cynetan, æt. ? Kintbury, on the river Kennet (*Cynete*), co. Berks.
Cyricburh. Chirbury, co. Salop.
Dacore amnis. River Dacre, co. Cumberland.
Defenan. The people of Devonshire.
Defenanscir. Devonshire.
Denisesburna. A tributary of the Rowley Water.
Deomed[e] or Deomedas (?). The people or district of Dyfed, *q.v.*
Deoraby. Derby.
Deorbiscir. Derbyshire.
Deorham. Dirham, co. Gloucester.
Deorhyrst. Deerhurst, co. Gloucester.
Derauuda, in, Silva Derorum. Beverley, co. York.
Dere, *Lat.* Deri. The inhabitants of the southern half of Northumbria.
Deruentio, fl. River Derwent, co. Cumberland.
Dofre. Dover, co. Kent.
Dogfeiliog, *W.* A principality in North Wales.
Domnoc civitas, Domuce } Dunwich, co. Suffolk.
Dorciccæstræ. Dorchester, co. Oxford.
Dornsæte. Dorset (the inhabitants of).
Dornwaraceaster. Dorchester, co. Dorset.
Dorobrevi. Rochester, co. Kent.
Doruentio, fl. River Derwent, co. York.
Doruvernis. Canterbury, co. Kent.
Driffeld. Driffield, co. York.
Dunholm. Durham.
Dyfed, *W.* Demetia (*Old Welsh* *Demet), a kingdom of South Wales.
Dynbaer. Dunbar, Haddingtonshire.
Eadesburh. Eddisbury, co. Chester.
Eadulfes Næs. The Naze, co. Essex.
Eadwinesclif. Eildon Hill, near Melrose.
Ealdelmesburh. Malmesbury, co. Wilts.
Eamotum, æt. River Eamont, near Dacre, cos. Cumberland and Westmoreland.
East Engle. East Anglia (the inhabitants of).
East Seaxe. Essex (the East-Saxons).
Ebchester (*Ebban-ceaster). Ebchester, co. Durham.
Eburacum. York.
Edelygion, *W.* A commot of Gwynllywg.
Egonesham. Eynsham, co. Oxford.
Elge, Elige. Ely, co. Cambridge.
Elmed-sætan. Dwellers in Elmet, co. York.
Elmete silva. Forest in West Yorkshire.
Elmham. Elmham, co. Norfolk.
Eluael, *W.* Elfael, a division of Rhwng Gwy a Hafren.
Englafeld. Englefield, co. Berks.
Eofeshamm. Evesham, co. Worcester.
Eoforwic-ceaster. York.
Erging, *W.* Now the deanery of Archenfield, co. Hereford.
Erminge Strete. The Ermine Street.
Ethandun. Edington, co. Wilts.
Euyas, W. District round Ewyas Harold, co. Hereford.
Exanceaster. Exeter.
Exan-mutha. Exmouth, co. Devon.
Farne insula. Fern Islands, co. Northumberland.
Fledanburh. Fladbury, co. Worcester.
Folcanstan. Folkestone, co. Kent.
Fos. Foss Road.
Frome, on. Frome, co. Somerset.
From-mutha. Mouth of river Froom, co. Dorset.
Gafulford. Galford, par. of Lew Trenchard, co. Devon (Rev. S. Baring-Gould).
Galmanho. Monastery or church on first site of St. Mary's abbey, York.
Gegnesburh. Gainsborough, co. Lincoln.
Geothaburh. ? Jedburgh, Roxburghshire.
Getlingum, In. Gilling, co. York.
Gifelceaster. Ilchester, co. Somerset.
Gillingaham. Gillingham, co. Dorset.
Gipeswic. Ipswich, co. Suffolk.
Glæstingaburh. Glastonbury, co. Somerset.
Gleawanceaster. Gloucester.
Gleaweceastrescir. Gloucestershire.
Gleni, fl. River Glen, co. Northumberland.
Gliuising, *W.* Glywyssing, older name of Morganwg and Gower.
Godmunddingaham. Goodmanham, co. York.
Grantabricgscir. Cambridgeshire.
Grantacæstir. Grantchester, co. Cambridge.
Grantanbrycg. Cambridge.
Grante, fl. River Cam, co. Cambridge.
Grenawic. Greenwich, co. Kent.
Guened, *W.* Gwynedd (*Venedotia*), a kingdom of North Wales.
Guent, W. (*English* Wente). Gwent, a kingdom of South Wales.
Guerthrynnyon, *W.* Gwrtheyrnion, a commot of Rhwng Gwy a Hafren, formerly a kingdom jointly with Buallt.
Guher, *W.* Gower, a commot of Ystrad Tywi.
Guinnliguiauc, *W.* Gwynllywg (*English* Wentloog), a division of Morganwg.
Gulat Morcant, *W.* Gwlad Morgan (whence Glamorgan). *See* Morcanuc.
Gyldeford. Guildford, co. Surrey.
Gyruii Australes. South Gyrwe (fen-men).
Gyrwe, North. North Gyrwe.
Gyrwum, In. Jarrow, co. Durham.
Hacanos. Hackness, co. York.
Hæstinga-ceaster. Hastings, co. Sussex.
Haethfeld. Hatfield Division, co. Notts, and Hatfield Chase, co. York.
Hæthfelth. ? Hatfield, co. Hertford.
Hagustaldensis ecclesia, Hagustaldes-ea, -ham } Hexham, co. Northumberland.
Hamtun. Southampton, co. Hants.
Hamtun. Northampton.
Hamtunscir. Hampshire (Southamptonshire).
Hamtunscir. Northamptonshire.
Hefenfelth. St. Oswalds, Cocklaw, in Lee St. John, co. Northumberland.
Hengestesdun. Hingston Down, co. Cornwall.
Heorotford. Hertford.
Heortfordscir. Hertfordshire.
Hereford. Hereford.
Heruteu. In or near Hartlepool, co. Durham.
Herutford. Hertford.
Hlydanford. Lidford, co. Devon.
Hocneratun. Hook Norton, co. Oxford.
Homelea, fl. River Hamble, co. Hants.
Hreopandun. Repton, co. Derby.
Hreutford. Redbridge, co. Hants.
Hrofæs-cæstræ, Hrofes-ceaster } Rochester, co. Kent.
Hrypum, In. Ripon, co. York.

Humbre Mutha. Mouth of River Humber.
Huntandun. Huntingdon.
Huntandunscir. Huntingdonshire.
Hwælleage, æt. Whalley, co. Lancaster.
Hwerwillon, to. Wherwell, co. Hants.
Hwicce. Inhabitants of an Old-English kingdom in cos. Worcester, Gloucester, (and W. Oxfordshire?).
Hwitanarne, æt. Whithorne, Wigtownshire.
Hyth. Hythe, co. Kent.
Icanho, æt. Boston, co. Lincoln.
Icenhilde-weg. The Icknield Way.
Iercingafeld. Archenfield (Deanery), co. Hertford.
In Silva Derorum. *See* Derauuda.
Iutorum provincia. The district of the Iutae in co. Hants.
Jal, *W.* Iâl (*English* Yale), a commot of Powys Fadog.
Kunegeceaster. Chester-le-Street, co. Durham.
Kyveiliauc. Cyfeiliog, a commot of Gwynedd, co. Montgomery.
Lægeceaster. Chester.
Læstingæu. Lastingham, co. York.
Læw. Lewes, co. Sussex.
Landwithan. Lawhitton, co. Cornwall.
Langport. Langport, co. Somerset.
Legacaestir. Chester.
Legeceasterscir. Leicestershire.
Leomynster. Leominster, co. Hereford.
Liccedfeld. Lichfield, co. Stafford.
Ligeraceaster. Leicester.
Limen. Lympne, co. Kent.
Limene mutha. Mouth of river at Lympne, co. Kent.
Lindcolnescir. Lincolnshire.
Lindcylene. Lincoln.
Lindesig. Lindsey, co. Lincoln.
Lindisfarena eg., Lindisfarnensis Insula } Lindisfarne Island.
Lindisfari. Inhabitants of Lindsey, co. Lincoln.
Lindissi provincia. Lindsey, co. Lincoln.
Lindocolina civitas. Lincoln.
Llandav. Llandaff, co. Glamorgan.
Lleudduniawn, *W.* Lothian.
Llyyn, *W.* Lleyn, a cantred of Gwynedd, co. Carnarvon.
Loidis regio. District round Leeds, co. York.
Lothene. Lothian.
Luel, Lugubalia } Carlisle.
Lunden, Lunden-burh, Lunden-wic, Lundonia } London.
Lyccidfelth. Lichfield, co. Stafford.
Lygetun. Leighton Buzzard, co. Bedford.
Mældun. Maldon, co. Essex.
Maelenyd, *W.* Maelienydd, a division of Rhwng Gwy a Hafren.
Magilros. Melrose, Roxburghshire.
Magonsætan. Inhabitants of Herefordshire.
Maildufi Urbs. Malmesbury, co. Wilts.
Mailros. Melrose, Roxburghshire.
Mameceaster. Manchester, co. Lancaster.
Mare Fresicum, *W.* The Irish Sea.
Maserfelth. Oswestry, co. Salop.
Mealdelmes-burh. Malmesbury, co. Wilts.
Meanvari. Dwellers about East and West Meon and Meon Stoke, co. Hants.
Medeshamstedi. Peterborough, co. Northampton.
Medwæge, fl. River Medway, co. Kent.
Meiryonyd, *W.* Meirionydd, a cantred of Gwynedd, co. Merioneth.
Merantun. Marten, par. of Great Bedwyn, co. Wilts.
Meresig. Mersea Island, co. Essex.
Mersc-ware. Inhabitants of Romney Marsh, co. Kent.
Middel Seaxe. Middlesex (the inhabitants of).
Middeltun. Milton (formerly Middleton) by Sittingbourne, co. Kent.
Mid-Engle. The Middle Angles.
Mierce. Mercia (the inhabitants of).
Mochnant, *W.* A district in Powys (cos. Denbigh and Montgomery).
Mon, *W.* Anglesea.
Monig. Anglesea.
Monig. The Isle of Man.
Morcanuc, *W.* Morganwg *alias* Gwlad Morgan, the kingdom of Morgan Hên.
Mynyw. St. Davids (*Menevia*), co. Pembroke.
Myrcforth. The Firth of Forth.
Nechtanes Mere. At Dunnichen, co. Forfar.
Nidd, fl. River Nidd, co. York.
North Folk. Norfolk (the inhabitants of).
North Wealas. North Wales (the North Welsh).
Northan-Hymbre. The inhabitants of Northumbria.
Northweorthig. English name of Derby.
Northwic. Norwich.
Olanig. Olney Island, by Gloucester.
Ottanford. Otford, co. Kent.
Oxenaford. Oxford.
Oxenafordscir. Oxfordshire.
Passanhamme, to. Passenham, co. Northampton.
Peartaneu. Partney, co. Lincoln.
Pec-sætan. The inhabitants of the Peak, co. Derby.
Pedridan mutha. Mouth of the river Parrot, co. Somerset.
Pefenasæ. Pevensey, co. Sussex.
Penta amnis. River Blackwater or Pant, co. Essex.
Penwith Steort. Land's End, in Hundred of Penwith, co. Cornwall.
Peonnho, to. Pinhoe, co. Devon.
Peonnum, æt. Penn Pits, etc., near Penselwood, co. Somerset.
Perscora. Pershore, co. Worcester.
Polleswyrth. Polesworth, co. Warwick.
Polltun. Pawton, par. of St. Breock, co. Cornwall.
Port, Portland. Portland, Isle of, co. Dorset.
Portascihth. Portskewett, co. Monmouth.
Portesmutha. Portsmouth, co. Hants.
Portlocan, æt. Porlock, co. Somerset.
Prifetes floda. River at Privett, co. Hants.
Puclan-cyrcan, æt. Pucklechurch, co. Gloucester.
Raculfe. Reculvers, co. Kent.
Ramesig. Ramsey, co. Huntingdon.
Readingum, to. Reading, co. Berks.
Reculf. Reculvers, co. Kent.
Rendlæsham. Rendlesham, co. Suffolk.
Repta-cæstir. Richborough Castle, co. Kent.
Rhwng Gwy a Hafren, *W.* 'Between the Wye and the Severn,' formerly part of Powys.
Richale. Riccall, co. York.
Ringmere. Ringmere Pit, in East Wretham, co. Norfolk.
Rippel, fl. River Ribble, co. Lancaster.
Ros, *W.* Rhôs, a cantred of Powys.
Rudelan. Rhuddlan, co. Flint.
Rumanea. Romney, co. Kent.
Rumcofan, æt. Runcorn, co. Chester.
Rutubi portus. Richborough, co. Kent.
Rywynawc, *W.* Rhufoniog, a cantred of Powys.
Sabrina amnis, Sæfern } River Severn.
St. Eadmundes burh. Bury St. Edmunds, co. Suffolk.
St. Petroces-stow. Padstow, co. Cornwall.
Sceaftesburh. Shaftesbury, co. Dorset.
Sceapig. Sheppey, Isle of, co. Kent.
Sceoburh. Shoebury, co. Essex.
Sceorstan. Sherston, co. Wilts.
Scireburnan, æt. Sherborne, co. Dorset.
Scotwad. The Firth of Forth.
Scrobbesburh. Shrewsbury.
Scrobbesbyrigscir. Shropshire.
Scythles-cester. ? Chesters near Chollerford, co. Northumberland.
Searoburh. Salisbury.
Seccandun. Seckington, co. Warwick.
Selæseu. Selsey, co. Sussex.
Senlac. Old name of Battle, co. Sussex.
Seolesig. Selsey, co. Sussex.
Silva Derorum, in. *See* Derauuda, in.
Snotingaham. Nottingham.
Snotingahamscir. Nottinghamshire.
Soluente. River Solent.
Sondwic. Sandwich, co. Kent.
Stæfford. Stafford.
Stæningum, æt. Steyning, co. Sussex.
Stafford-scir. Staffordshire.
Stane, æt. Staines, co. Middlesex.
Stanfordbrycg. Stamfordbridge, co. York.
Steanford. Stamford, co.
Stræcled Wealas. The Welsh of the valley of the Clyde.
Strat T[i]ui, *W.* Ystrad Tywi (vale of the Towy), a principality of South Wales.
Streanæs-halch. English name of Whitby, co. York.
Sture mutha. Mouth of river Stour, co. Essex.
Sualua, fl. River Swale, co. York.
Sudergeona. Surrey (the inhabitants of).
Sumorsæte. Somerset.
Sumortun. Somerton, co. Somerset.
Sunning. Sonning, co. Berks.
Suthburh. Sudbury, co. Suffolk.
Suth Engle. The South Angles.
Suth-folk. Suffolk (the inhabitants of).
Suth-geweorc. Southwark, co. Surrey.
Suthrige. Surrey (the inhabitants of).
Suth-Seaxe. Sussex (the South Saxons).
Suthwillan, æt. Southwell, co. Notts.
Swanawic. Swanage, co. Dorset.
Taddenes-scylf. Tanshelf, in Pontefract, co. York
Tæfingstoc. Tavistock, co. Devon.
Tæmeseford. Tempsford, co. Bedford.
Tamaweorthig. Tamworth, cos. Stafford and Warwick.
Tame, æt. Thame, co. Oxford.
Tamer mutha. Mouth of river Tamar.
Tamur, fl. River Tamar, cos. Devon and Cornwall.
Tanotos Insula. Thanet, Isle of, co. Kent.
Tantun. Taunton, co. Somerset.
Tatha[nceaster]. Tadcaster, co. York.
Tegeingel, *W.* Tegeingl, a cantred of Gwynedd, included in co. Flint.
Tegntun. Teignton, co. Devon.
Temes, fl. River Thames.
Tenet. Thanet, Isle of.
Teotanheale, æt. Tettenhall, co. Stafford.
Thelwæle, to. Thelwall, co. Chester.
Theodford. Thetford, co. Norfolk.
Thorneg. Thorney, West, co. Sussex.
Tilaburg. Tilbury, co. Essex.
Tinan-mutha. Tynemouth, co. Northumberland.
Tine ea, Tinus amnis } River Tyne, cos. Northumberland and Durham.
Tofeceaster. Towcester, co. Northampton.
Totanæs. Totnes, co. Devon.
Treanta, fl., Trente, fl. } River Trent.
Tuidi, fl. River Tweed.
Tunebrycg. Tunbridge, co. Kent.
Turecesieg. Torksey, co. Lincoln.
Tweoxneam, æt. Christchurch (Twineham), co. Hants.
Uaeclinga-caestir. St. Albans, co. Hertford.
Uantsumu. River Stour by Isle of Thanet, co. Kent.
Uerlama-caestir. St. Albans, co. Hertford.
Uetadun, Wætadun. Watton, co. York.
Uinuæd, fl. ? River Went, co. York.
Uiurae-muda. Mouth of river Wear, co. Durham.
Uiuri, fl. River Wear, co. Durham.
Undalum, In. Oundle, co. Northampton.
Urbs Bebbae. Bamborough, co. Northumberland.
Urbs Legionum. Chester.
Use, fl. River Ouse, co. Bedford.
Use, fl. River Ouse, co. York.
Vecta. Wight, Isle of.
Venta. Winchester.
Verolamium. St. Albans, co. Hertford.
Wæced. Watchet, co. Somerset.
Wæclinga Stræt. The Watling Street.
Wæge, fl. River Wye, co. Hereford.
Wæringwic. Warwick.
Wæringwic-scir. Warwickshire.
Wæstburh. Westbury-on-Severn, co. Gloucester.
Wætadun. Watton, co. York.
Wealingaford. Wallingford, co. Berks.
Wealtham. Bishop's Waltham, co. Hants.
Wecedport. Watchet, co. Somerset.
Wedmor. Wedmore, co. Somerset.
Wente. *See* Guent.
Wentsæte. ? The inhabitants of Went (Forest of Dean, co. Gloucester).
Weolud, fl. River Welland.
Weor. River Wear, co. Durham.
Werham. Wareham, co. Dorset.
Westanwuda, be. Sherborne, co. Dorset.
Westmoringaland. Westmoreland.
West Seaxe. Wessex (the West Saxons).
West-Wealas. Inhabitants of Cornwall.
Wibricg. Weybridge, co. Surrey.
Wiger(n)aceaster. Worcester.
Wiht. Wight, Isle of.
Wihtgaraburh. Carisbrooke, Isle of Wight.
Wiltun. Wilton, co. Wilts.
Wiltunscir. Wiltshire.
Winburna. Wimborne Minster, co. Dorset.
Wincelcumb. Winchcombe, co. Gloucester.
Wintan-cæstir. Winchester.
Wirhealum, on. Wirral, Hundred of, co. Chester.
Witham. Witham, co. Essex.
Woddesbeorh. Woodborough, co. Wilts.
Wuse, fl. River Ouse, cos. Cambridge and Norfolk.
Ypwines-fleot. Ebbsfleet, co. Kent.
Yttinga-ford. At Linslade, co. Bucks (cf. *Cart. Sax.* iii. 454).

W. H. STEVENSON.

XVII

ENGLAND AND WALES IN 1086

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XVII

ENGLAND AND WALES IN 1086

EXCEPT in the extreme west and north-west the conquest and repartition of South Britain by the Normans were complete before the end of the reign of William I, and his geld survey known as Domesday Book furnishes the fullest and most satisfactory materials for a historical map of the country at a definite date during the Norman period. Though primarily a rate-book, it yields a nearly complete picture of the feudal geography of England at the time when it was drawn up, and is our best authority for the number and status of the boroughs before the epoch of charters. In the map for which it has served as the main basis an attempt has been made to depict (1) the boundaries of Norman England and its administrative subdivisions; (2) the situation of the fiefs of some of the chief Norman magnates; (3) the growth of castle-building; (4) the number of towns and the classes into which they appear to fall; (5) the chief ecclesiastical foundations in existence twenty years after the Conquest.

I. The boundaries of Norman England and its administrative subdivisions.

1. *The external boundaries.* On the Scottish and Welsh frontiers the Norman Kingdom had not yet reached its fullest extension. The southern portion of the old British Kingdom of *Cumbria* (Cumbreland) granted to Malcolm I by Edmund in 945 on condition of military service, and afterwards held either by the Scottish King himself or by a member of his family, had, under Malcolm III, passed into the hands of Dolfin, son of the Northumbrian earl, Gospatric. Some trace this to Gospatric's raid into 'Cumbreland' in 1070, but it seems a more probable conjecture that Malcolm himself put Dolfin in possession of the district, possibly after Gospatric's disgrace and flight to Scotland in 1072. In any case it did not become an integral part of England until William Rufus, in 1092, drove out Dolfin and annexed it. The southern limit of Dolfin's government was the watershed separating the basin of the Eden from the Lune Valley and the greater part of the Lake district. It was thus the natural territory of Carlisle that he ruled. Henry I threw it together between 1120 and 1130 with districts south of the watershed, which had hitherto followed the fortunes of Deira or Yorkshire, and divided the whole vertically into the counties of *Carlisle* (not called Cumberland until 1177) and *Westmorland*. Down to 1856, however, the diocese of Carlisle retained the old boundaries of Dolfin's principality, the southern halves of the two counties remaining until the reign of Henry VIII in the diocese of York, and subsequently forming part of the diocese of Chester. Ranulf le Meschyn, who was invested with the lordship of this district of Carleolium shortly after its annexation, created the three mesne baronies of Burgh, Gilsland, and Lyddale to protect it against the Scots. (See Plate XX.)

If the district of Carlisle was lost to the Scottish King, he still held under the English Crown, but with *jura regalia*, the franchise of *Tyndale* in the wild country along the upper waters of the North and South Tyne. Wark, on the North Tyne, was the *caput* of the franchise, which included the parish of Alston, annexed to the county of Carlisle between 1130 and 1152, on account of the Crown interest in its silver mines, but left ecclesiastically in the diocese of Durham.

The close of the Conqueror's reign saw a pause in the Norman advance at the expense of the Welsh, and the frontier remained somewhat indeterminate. The progress made was not uniform along its whole length. Of the three great Marcher earldoms established with viceregal prerogatives at *Chester*, *Shrewsbury*, and *Hereford*, the last had been the least successful. William Fitzosbern's premature death and his son's treason brought it back into the hands of the Crown within eight years after the Conquest. Fitzosbern may perhaps be credited with the completion of the conquest of *Gwent*, between the Wye and the Usk, and he built close to the mouth of the former river the great castle of Striguil (Estrighoiel), better known now as Chepstow Castle. The Conqueror himself took up the work, but his expedition in 1080 or 1081 had no great results, though he is said to have reached St. Davids. According to the Brut-y-Tywysogion, Cardiff Castle was begun in the former year, but there is no mention of it in Domesday Book. Some undefined territory, however, was held on the right bank of the Usk. In Herefordshire itself (which in the twelfth-century Pipe Rolls is always entered as H. *in Waliis*) the frontier practically stood where Harold had left it. Radnor Forest and the middle course of the Wye still formed the limit of the Norman dominion. The conquest of South Wales remained for the next reign to achieve. Further north the energy of the Earl of Chester and his associate Robert of Rhuddlan, in one direction, and of Roger of Montgomery in another, had carried the Norman domination over parts of *Gwynedd* and *Powys*, from which it afterwards receded. When the Conqueror invested Hugh of Avranches with the palatine earldom of Chester, the Welsh march ran up the Clwyd, and what is now Flintshire formed the Cheshire hundred of Atiscross, though its seaward half known as Englefield (Tegeingl) had never paid geld. A moiety of Englefield and of the new castle and borough of Rhuddlan was held of Hugh by his kinsman Robert de Rhuddlan (Roelent) who bore the brunt of the frontier fighting and received a Crown grant of the conquests made beyond the Clwyd, whence Orderic calls him Robertus Marchisus. He held Rhos (Ros) and Rhuvoniog (Reweniou), the country between Clwyd and Conway, in fief from the Crown, guarding them by a fortress at Dwyganwy (Orderic's 'Dagaunoth'). Beyond the Conway 'Nortwales' was granted out to him at a rent of £40. This was doubtless Gwynedd; for the hundred of Arvester, which he claimed as part of '*Nortwales*' from Roger of Montgomery, who had taken possession of it, must almost certainly be identified with Arwystli, a district afterwards disputed between Gwynedd and Powys, and in the diocese of Bangor. Whether Robert was able to exercise actual authority in *Gwynedd* is uncertain. He was himself attacked and slain at Dwyganwy in 1088.

The westward advance of Roger of Montgomery brought him across the path of Robert and Hugh at more than one point. Roger, who had received a grant of 'Shrewsbury and the whole county of Shropshire and all the lordship that King Edward had in it,' built a new Montgomery on the extreme western border of his palatinate, and advancing up the Severn annexed, as we have seen, the cantred of Arwystli, which implies the occupation of the intermediate districts of Keri and Kedewen. *Ceredigiaun* (Cardiganshire) and *Dyved* (Pembrokeshire) were ravaged but not permanently

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occupied until 1093. Meanwhile a parallel advance had been made up the Dee, and Edeyrnion (Dernion) and Cynllaith (Chenlei) were incorporated in Mersete hundred. The starting-point here must have been the new castle of Roger's sheriff Raynald at Oswestry, which Domesday calls Luvre (L'Œuvre, i.e. the Work). Here again the lines of advance from Chester and Shrewsbury crossed. Yale (Gal = Ial) was conquered by Roger, but, being nearly surrounded by the territory of Hugh and Robert, it was held of him by the Earl of Chester. Maelor Saesneg, now a detached part of Flintshire, seems to have been included in Cheshire, Bettisfield and Worthenbury being surveyed in Dudestan hundred[1].

2. *The internal boundaries.* (*a*) *The Shires.* In most cases the boundaries of the shires in 1086 did not differ materially from the present ones, though they might remain vague where a great forest, like the Andredsweald, separated two counties. But there were some exceptions in the north and west.

The name *Northumbria* or *Northumberland* (Northymbria, Northymbraland) had definitely receded to the Tees, and no longer included the ancient Deira, which was now known as Yorkshire. The *jura regalia* enjoyed by the Bishops of Durham over almost all the territory between Tees and Tyne already tended to drive the name beyond the latter river, but the liberty of Durham was and long remained in theory only an extensive regality or franchise (Dominium, or Terra, beati Cuthberti[2]) within the county of Northumberland. The honour of Sadberg (Sedberuie), and the liberty of Barnard's Castle, had not yet been annexed to it. In 1109 the 'homines Northumbrenses de comitatu' were even laying claim to Aycliffe and Burdon. The bishops did not get hold of Sadberg until 1189. William Rufus granted the forests of Teesdale and Marwood with the lordship of Middleton in Teesdale and Gainford to Guy Baliol. When John Baliol forfeited his English estates the bishop claimed the honours of Barnard Castle and Gainford, but Edward I regranted them to Guy Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, whose successors for five descents maintained their independence of the see.

The extensive franchises of the Bishops of *Durham*, which were afterwards loosely treated as a regular palatinate, are usually traced to the episcopate of Walcher (1071–1080) who during his last years was also Earl of Northumbria. But another view regards them as merely a development of pre-Conquest immunities of the men of Saint Cuthbert (*Haliwerfolc*). Henry II confirmed the franchises, particularly exemption from all county or hundred service, and, in sending his 'justicia' into the liberty in 1166, disclaimed any intention of creating a precedent. Besides the great franchise of Durham, 'St. Cuthbert's Lond' included in 1086 three liberties north of Tyne, *Bedlington*, *Norhamshire*, and *Islandshire*. Howden, Craike, and Allertonshire, the last acquired under Rufus, were held as franchises in Yorkshire. Northumberland contained three other large franchises dating beyond the Conquest, whose lords enjoyed *jura regalia*. *Hexhamshire* belonged to the Archbishops of York; *Tyndale* was held by the King of Scots; the Conqueror granted *Redesdale*, in 1076, to Robert de Umfraville.

The county of *Lancaster* was not yet in existence. Its northern half, together with what is now Southern Cumberland and Westmorland, was surveyed with Yorkshire. The whole district had long been an appendage of the Deiran portion of the old wider Northumbria. Its exclusion (with the later wapentake of Ewecross) from the division into ridings shows that it was not reckoned as an integral part of the shire of York. In Domesday the name 'Agemundrenesse' seems to be applied to the whole of this appendage, but it is more probable that the rubric only covers the district which immediately follows it, the peninsula between Wyre and Ribble which became the Lancashire hundred of Amounderness. South Lancashire was surveyed with Cheshire, but under a separate rubric, 'Inter Ripam et Mersham[1].' They were both in the great Mercian diocese of Lichfield just removed (1085) to Chester, but no civil connexion appears. Yet a charter granted to Pontefract Priory between 1120 and 1135[2] mentions 'ecclesia de Walleya (Whalley) in Cestriaeschira.' The county of Lancaster was formed between 1130 and 1164, but remained ecclesiastically divided by the Ribble between the dioceses of York and Lichfield.

The palatine county of *Chester* was considerably larger than modern Cheshire, including the whole of the later Flintshire and the present Denbighshire hundred of Bromfield. *Shropshire* and *Herefordshire* likewise extended further westwards than they do now. The Shropshire hundred of Mersete comprised not merely the present hundred of Oswestry (which itself was afterwards for several centuries march-land), but part at least of the Denbighshire hundred of Chirk and the western end of Merionethshire. The hundred of Witentreu included portions of the present Montgomeryshire (mostly comprised in the *castellaria* of Montgomery, whose limits are indicated on the map), and that of Lenteurde (Leintwardine) took in the north-eastern corner of Radnorshire as far as the river Lug. These districts were subsequently thrown into the *Welsh March*. In Herefordshire the hundred of Hezetre contained much of the present hundred of Radnor, which was also to be march-land for some centuries. The Welsh districts of Ewias (now the hundred of Ewyas Lacy, and to be distinguished from the *castellaria* of Ewias (Harold) which lay in Cutethorn hundred) and Erging or Arcenefelde were not integral parts of the shire. Of Ralph de Todeni's castle at Clifford it is said: 'est de regno Angliae; non subjacet alicui hundret neque in consuetudine.' Monmouth Castle too was surveyed with Herefordshire, though, like Clifford, it became the seat of a lordship marcher.

Among inland counties *Rutland* alone has experienced a serious alteration of boundary since the date of Domesday. It was not then a shire, the sheriff of Nottingham collecting its geld, and its area was about a third less than at present. The bulk of the later hundreds of East Alstoe and Wrandike lay as yet in Northamptonshire.

(*b*) *The Ridings.* The *Lincolnshire* 'Ridings' (Tredings) were not in 1086 divisions of the whole county but only of its northern moiety, the ancient Lindsey. The archdeaconry of Stow still retains the boundaries of the West Riding of Lindsey. The district south of the Witham bore the general name of Sudlincolia, with Kesteven (Chetsteven) and Holland (Hoiland) as subdivisions. The limits of the Yorkshire Ridings were the same as at present, save that the North Riding did not yet include the wapentake of Ewecross.

II. The distribution of feudal estates among the leading Norman magnates.

The scattered character of the Conqueror's grants of lands to his followers (traceable less to deliberate policy than to the nature of the holdings of their Anglo-Saxon *antecessores*) renders it impossible on a map so modest in scale to do more than indicate a few of the compacter groups of estates. A glance at Bishop Hobhouse's map of the estates held by tenants-in-chief in Somerset, or that for part of the deanery of Doncaster, in Hunter's South Yorkshire, will sufficiently emphasize the difficulties that beset any attempt to construct a complete feudal map of England. Speaking generally, it was only in exposed positions along the Channel or in the

[1] Eyton's identification (*History of Shropshire*, x. 315) with an unnamed Welsh territory held by Roger cannot therefore be accepted.

[2] Liber Niger, ed. Hearne, i. 307. Cf. Gaillard T. Lapsley, *The County Palatine of Durham*.

[1] 'ðaere landa betwux Ribbel & Maerse,' *Codex Diplomaticus*, vi. 147, sub anno 1002.

[2] Holmes, *Pontefract*, Appendix, p. iv.

west, which had to be guarded against attack, or form a starting-point of fresh conquest, that whole districts were granted out *en bloc*. Roger of Poitou, Hugh of Avranches, and Roger of Montgomery were direct lords of almost all the territory stretching down the western frontier from the Ribble to the Teme. The greater part of Roger of Poitou's fief had, however, been resumed by the Crown prior to the drawing up of Domesday Book. His father, Roger of Montgomery, in addition to his Shropshire palatinate, received the two westernmost rapes of Sussex with Chichester, Arundel, and the profits of the shire. Each of the other four rapes was granted out practically as a solid block to some great baron. With the charge of the defence of Kent, Odo of Bayeux received a huge though not continuous fief in that county. The grant of Cornwall to another half-brother of the Conqueror, Robert, Count of Mortain, may have been prompted less by military considerations than by an impression that no danger could accrue from such a gift in this remote and isolated peninsula.

Among the more compact of the great fiefs in the interior of the country were those of William Peverel, Henry de Ferrers, and Roger de Busli in the north midlands. The two former were ultimately united by marriage, and subsequently absorbed in the duchy of Lancaster. Roger de Busli's lands passed to the Crown at the death of his son, and were known as the honour of Tickhill. In the South the largest holding in one county, excluding those mentioned above, was that of Baldwin the Sheriff (brother of Richard de Tonbridge, or Fitz-Gilbert, the founder of the great house of Clare), in Devonshire. Most of it passed to the Earls of Devon, of the Redvers and Courtenay families. Estates were much smaller in the counties which represented the nucleus of the old West-Saxon Kingdom.

A comparison with Plate XVIII will show how nearly complete was the extinction of the great baronial houses of the Conquest in the interval of two centuries[1].

III. The growth of castle-building.

As Domesday Book, for the most part, only mentions castles incidentally, the list to be deduced from it is imperfect. They are some fifty in number. In the map they have been distinguished from those which are known from other sources to have been in existence by 1088. It should be remembered that the term *castellum* at this epoch does not necessarily imply the existence of a rectangular keep, or even the use of stone. Thus Arnulf of Montgomery is recorded to have built a castle at Pembroke (*c.* 1093) *de cespite*. Mr. Round has shown that *castellum* originally meant any fortified enclosure, and that in the early Norman period the bailey was sometimes distinguished under this name from the *mote* or earthen mound to which it was attached. The Normans seem to have at first surmounted these mounds with shell keeps, and only gradually substituted a rectangular central tower (*turris*) for the mote keep. The Conqueror's Tower at London was an exception at its date.

The identification of the 'Avretone' Castle of the Herefordshire survey with Richard's Castle has been accepted. Is it possible to connect the Domesday name with the Overton which is now a township in the parish of Richard's Castle?

IV. The number and status of the boroughs.

The compilers of Domesday found themselves obliged to make a rough attempt at a classification of the towns. There were many boroughs which could be fitted into their general scheme, and entered among the manors on Terra Regis, or on the fief of some tenant-in-chief, lay or ecclesiastical. But a considerable number, including the majority of the county towns, seemed to require special treatment. They were important centres of local life and administration, from which the Crown drew a considerable revenue, and which were subject to various public duties it was desirable to put on record. The *redditus*, or profits, from many of them had been divided before the Conquest between the king and the earl or sheriff, though the Crown had now usually added the earl or sheriff's third to its own two-thirds. In a majority of them the ownership of the houses in the town was divided between the Crown and various magnates of the shire, or the latter had rights over certain burgesses. But in the absence of evidence of 'tenurial heterogeneity,' or even of a mere personal relation between part of the burgesses and other lords than the king, in such cases as Bedford, Bridport, and Dorchester it is hardly safe to select this as the feature which compelled separate treatment. Indeed it is met with in some royal and mesne boroughs. Calne, though entered as a manor on Terra Regis, contained burgesses belonging to other manors; and in Dunwich, which is included among the estates of Robert Malet, the Bishop of Ely had eighty burgesses. On the other hand Hereford, in which certain barons had burgesses and which gets special treatment, is expressly stated to have been held by the king 'in dominio.' In attempting to give a list of the towns, which those who drew up Domesday Book found a difficulty in working into their general scheme, we have included certain boroughs in the eastern counties, Yarmouth for instance, which are grouped at the end of the account of the Terra Regis, and a number of others, like Winchester, which seem to have been reserved for special treatment, but in the end were not dealt with as a whole at all. Southwark has only been placed in this latter category after some hesitation.

The line between towns of this class and royal or mesne boroughs is not very sharply drawn. Chichester and Arundel stand at the head of Roger of Montgomery's estates in Sussex because they were 'in manu comitis,' but they are not treated as ordinary manors. Shrewsbury, on the contrary, which was also in the hand of Count Roger, has half a page to itself at the beginning of the Shropshire survey. In general it is the smaller and simpler boroughs which are treated as mere royal or private estate. The tendency of the Crown and the earls, before the Conquest, to grant away profitable rights, may have reduced a certain number of boroughs, in which king and earl had shared the profits, to a mesne position, as we know was done in the case of Fordwich. William himself had mediatized Totness, but Edward the Confessor had held it 'in dominio.' Perhaps the humblest borough was the 'parvum burgum nomine Seseltre (Seasalter in Kent) quod proprie pertinet coquinae archiepiscopi.' A distinct class among the mesne boroughs seems to be formed by the little groups of burgesses who had gathered round the castles of Norman lords with an eye to revenue, at Oakhampton, Clare, Eye, Clifford, Wigmore, Quatford, Tutbury, Tickhill (Dadisleia), Rhuddlan, Penwortham (Peneverdant), and perhaps Berkhampstead. The burgesses of Rhuddlan received the customs of the Norman *bourg* of Breteuil, which, we find from other sources than Domesday, were also bestowed on Shrewsbury, Hereford, Lichfield, and Preston, and through them upon many others[1]. It is probable enough that the customs of the other new castle boroughs were modelled upon Norman precedents. The new borough of Sussex, on the manor of Rameslie in Guestling hundred, has been considered by some as an extension of Hastings, but must rather be identified with Winchelsea or Rye.

JAMES TAIT.

[1] The principal seats, or 'capita,' of honours and baronies are in many cases marked in the map by a special type; but it has been impossible thus to distinguish the majority of them, since the most important are named, as boroughs, in capital letters.

[1] D. B., i. 269; Miss Bateson, *Records of Leicester*, p. xiv, and in the *English Historical Review*, xv. 73 f. (1900).

XVIII

ENGLAND AND WALES UNDER EDWARD I

XVIII

ENGLAND AND WALES UNDER EDWARD I

A. The administrative divisions.

The *English shires* were substantially the same as at the present day, except on the Welsh border, where much that is now English shire-ground was ranked within the March of Wales. For examples—the lordships of Oswestry, Chirbury, Whittington, Down, and Clun were not in Shropshire; Wigmore, Ewyas, and Eardisley not in Herefordshire; Wollaston, Tidenham, &c., not in Gloucestershire; Bewdley not in Worcestershire.

The *great franchises of England* were those districts which were entirely outside the English shire-system: viz. the Bishopric of Durham (the main portion between the Tyne and Tees, with the detached districts of Norhamshire, Bedlingtonshire, and Crayke) and the County Palatine of Chester, to which the new county of Flint (created 1284) was now a sort of dependency. Flintshire did not then include the bishop's lordship of St. Asaph or the lordship of Mold. The *lesser franchises* had a less complete independence of the neighbouring shires, sharing as a rule in returning members to parliament for them. Among these were:—the Isle of Ely (Bishop of Ely) and the Soke of Peterborough (Abbey of Peterborough). On the Scots border was a group of smaller but much more complete franchises which were not considered parts of Northumberland. These were Hexhamshire (Archbishop of York), Tyndale (King of Scots), and Redesdale (Gilbert de Umfraville, Earl of Angus).

The *Principality of Wales* (i.e. the dominions of Llywelyn) had been annexed to the crown in 1284, when a rough shire-system and English principles of administration were introduced. The new shires were:—(1) the 'three old shires of Gwynedd,' Carnarvon, Anglesey (both having the same boundaries as now), and Merioneth (the same as the modern shire, except that Mawddwy was a marcher lordship); (2) the southern shires, viz. Cardigan and Carmarthen[1], both much smaller than the modern shires[2]; (3) Flintshire, which was also created then, but attached to Cheshire.

The *March of Wales* was a lawless region ruled by a multitude of feudal chieftains, mainly of English and Norman descent, though a few (e.g. Owen of Pool) were Welsh. Its legal position was unaffected by the conquest of the Principality, and in 1354 it was declared by statute to depend directly upon the crown and to be no part of the Principality. Its main importance is due to the fact that its lordships fell into the hands of the great English baronial houses, and supplied them with a recruiting ground for light infantry and an opportunity of carrying on feudal traditions of independence. The most important lordships marcher were Pembroke and Glamorgan, which both had the organization of a shire, though not even all southern Pembrokeshire was included in the palatine earldom of Pembroke, and only the greater part of the low-lying 'vale of Glamorgan' was subject to the sheriff of Cardiff as deputy of the lord of Glamorgan. The remaining marcher lordships marked on the map are the northern marches of Rhos, Rhuvoniog, and Duffryn Clwyd, established by Edward I on their conquest from Llywelyn in 1277 and 1284: and the older lordships of Mold, Yale, Bromfield, Chirkland, Oswestry, Chirbury, Montgomery, Kerry, Cydowain, Arwystli, Elvael, Mawddwy, Cyveiliog, Geneu'r Glyn, Deuddwr, Gwrthrennion, Maelynydd, Clun, Wigmore, Radnor, Ewyas, Dinas and Blaenllyvni, Brecon, Builth, Tregaron, Llandovery, Yskennin, Carnwallon, Kidwelly, Emlyn, Kilgerran, Kemmes, Haverfordwest, Narberth, Gower, Neath, Llandaff, Gwenllwg, and Over and Nether Went. Older jurisdictions, e.g. those of surviving Welsh chieftains such as Powysland (ruled by Owen of Welshpool), and ecclesiastical franchises, e.g. St. Asaph, Llandaff, Abergwili (Bishop of St. David's), and above all Dewsland (NW. Pembrokeshire, Bishop of St. David's), assimilated themselves in constitution to the Norman feudal states that surrounded them.

B. The distribution of territorial influence of the great houses in 1290.

This can only be indicated very roughly and tentatively. The policy of William I of scattering widely the great estates still prevailed in part, and, save in the great franchises and the Marches, which were both administrative divisions and centres of feudal power, the lands held even by the greatest nobles were so dispersed that it is impossible to indicate them with any precision on a small map. But the custom of the lesser landowners of a district attaching themselves to the local magnate was beginning to set up local spheres of influence that were wider than the actual lands and jurisdictions held by the great houses. Both estates and great families were always fluctuating, so that the state of things in a definite year had to be chosen to be represented on the map. The baronage under Edward I was very different from the feudal nobility of the Norman period, and even the newer administrative aristocracy of Henry II had largely died out. But aggregations of estates lasted longer than families, and the official element in the earldoms gave some continuity to the higher rank of the peerage even when

[1] Traces of these exist earlier, e.g. in 1270, possibly after 1256.

[2] The marcher lordships of Geneu'r Glyn and Tregaron were outside Cardiganshire: Llandovery, Yskennin, Carnwallon, Kidwelly, Emlyn, and Abergwili, outside Carmarthenshire.

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the dignity of earl passed from house to house. During Henry III's reign a large number of families and earldoms had become extinct, or the estates had become divided among female lines.

Examples: Mandeville, earls of Essex, extinct in 1237; the local line of earls of Chester in 1237; the Scottish earldom of Cambridge and Huntingdon, in 1237; Hubert de Burgh's earldom of Kent, in 1243; William Longsword's earldom of Salisbury, in 1250; Quincy, earldom of Winchester, in 1264; the Montfort earldom of Leicester, and the Ferrers earldom of Derby, both forfeited after Evesham; the Fors earldom of Albemarle in 1260, and the Redvers earldom of Devon in 1262.

Under the early years of Edward I the greater baronage was singularly constant. The year 1290 marks the end of this period. After it came the great escheats of Edward's last years (Cornwall and Norfolk). The new creations of Edward III start a new period of baronial history.

The *royal domain*, besides its ancient possessions, which are not as a rule marked on the map, was now swollen by conquest, escheat, and forfeiture, and not yet impaired by the lavish grants of a later period. Edward's recent acquisitions included the five shires of the Principality of Wales, the earldom of Chester (including Flint), and several marcher lordships, e.g. Builth, Montgomery, Chirbury, Haverford-west (Queen Eleanor)[1]. Edward also obtained a large share of the heritage of the earls of Albemarle on the death of Avelina de Fors (1269), e.g. Craven, and part of Holderness. Man, which in 1266 had been ceded by the Norwegians to the King of Scots, was at this time directly held by King Edward, though it was soon surrendered to John Balliol as a fief of the *English* Crown.

The *earldoms* were now lessened in number, and in many cases several were held by the same person. Excluding the king as earl of Chester, there were but *twelve earls* in 1290. These with their chief estates are now given.

1. EDMUND, EARL OF CORNWALL. (*a*) Western estate, earldom of Cornwall stretching from Land's End to Exeter, and including Dartmoor (Lidford). Chippenham, and Mere, help to connect this with (*b*) upper Thames valley estate, the honours of Wallingford and St. Valery, lands in Oxon, Berks, and Bucks, reaching eastwards to the honour of Berkham-stead (Herts) and to Middlesex (Isleworth and Twickenham). (*c*) Honour of Eye in East Anglia. (*d*) Midland estate, Kesteven (Linc.), the Shrievalty of Rutland, with Oakham, Northants, including Rockingham. (*e*) Northern estate, mainly in N. Riding of Yorks, with Knaresborough and Aldborough. (This earldom escheated to the crown in 1300, and in the fourteenth century followed the fortunes of the Principality and of Chester.)

2. EDMUND, EARL OF LANCASTER, LEICESTER, AND DERBY. (*a*) North and central Midland estate, East Derbyshire, North Notts, central Lindsey (Linc.), nearly all Leicestershire with Leicester, NE. Staffs (Newcastle-under-Lyme, Tutbury), parts of Warwickshire (Kenilworth) and Northants. (*b*) Northern estate, N. Lancs (Lancaster, Preston), SW. Lancs (hundred of West Derby, including Liverpool); N. Riding of Yorks (Pickering, Easingwold, parts of Vale of Mowbray), and parts of N. Northumberland with Dunstanburgh (not yet a castle). (*c*) South Welsh estate, SW. Marches of Kidwelly and Carnwallon, and SE. honour of Monmouth (Monmouth, Grosmont, Skenfrith, Whitecastle). (*d*) Outlying estates in Suffolk, Essex, and Berks (Vale of Kennet, Hunger-ford).

[1] The Principality and Chester were granted to Edward of Carnarvon in 1301, and gradually became appanages of the heir.

3. HENRY DE LACY, EARL OF LINCOLN AND SALISBURY. (*a*) Lancashire and Yorkshire estate, hundreds of Blackburn and Salford (Clitheroe, Colne, Burnley, Bury, Rochdale (Castleton in Rochdale)), with Knowsley and Widnes in West Derby, and lordship of Halton (constableship of Chester) in Cheshire, large parts of West Riding, including Pontefract. (*b*) Almost adjacent to this group, the Trent Valley estate, in N. Leicestershire, Mid Notts, and Lincolnshire (including Lincoln and Bolingbroke). (*c*) North March of Wales, Kimmerch, Rhos, Rhuvoniog (Denbigh); together with some scattered lordships in the South March. (*d*) S. Wilts and E. Dorset. The Lacy estates, which nearly everywhere adjoined the Lancaster estates, went to Earl Thomas of Lancaster, son of Edmund, with his wife Alice, heiress and daughter of Henry de Lacy. Hence Thomas possessed five earldoms.

4. GILBERT DE CLARE, EARL OF GLOUCESTER AND HERTFORD. (*a*) Gloucestershire (Tewkesbury, Thornbury, Sodbury, Campden) with outlying estates in N. Devon, S. and E. Dorset, and S. Hants. (*b*) South Wales, lordship (county) of Glamorgan (Cardiff, Caerphilly) with Neath, the hill country towards Brecon, Gwenllwg, and parts of Nether-went (Caerleon, Usk). (*c*) SE. estate, SW. Suffolk (Clare), N. Norfolk (Wells), Kent (Upper Medway, Tunbridge), and E. Surrey (Camberwell).

5. HUMPHREY DE BOHUN, EARL OF HEREFORD AND ESSEX. (*a*) Eastern estate, NW. Essex (Pleshey), NE. Middlesex and S. Herts, with Kimbolton, Hunts. (*b*) Western estate, S. Herefordshire. (*c*) Welsh March, the lordship of Brecon, with some smaller districts (Netherwent, Caldicot).

6. RICHARD FITZALAN, EARL OF ARUNDEL. (*a*) West Sussex (Arundel). (*b*) North March of Wales (Oswestry, Clun).

7. JOHN DE WARENNE, EARL OF SURREY AND SUSSEX. (*a*) Southern estate, SE. Surrey (Dorking and Reigate) and C. and E. Sussex (Cuckfield, Lewes). (*b*) West Riding of Yorkshire (Sandal, Conisborough). (*c*) S. Kesteven (Grant-ham, Stamford). (*d*) North March of Wales, lordships of Bromfield and Yale (Dinas Bran). (The Warenne and Fitzalan properties largely adjoined each other and were united by the marriage of Alice de Warenne with Edmund, Earl of Arundel (1305).)

8. ROGER BIGOD, EARL OF NORFOLK AND SUFFOLK. Main estate in Norfolk and Suffolk (Bungay). (This earldom lapsed to the crown in 1306.)

9. WILLIAM BEAUCHAMP, EARL OF WARWICK. Estates mainly in Worcestershire (Worcester, Droitwich, Elmley), also Warwick and neighbourhood.

10. WILLIAM OF VALENCE, EARL OF PEMBROKE. (*a*) Palatine earldom of Pembroke (south of modern shire) in March of Wales, with lands in the East March (Goodrich). (*b*) Widely scattered estates in England, especially in Norfolk, Kent, Berks, and Herts (Hertford).

11. JOHN OF BRITTANY, EARL OF RICHMOND. (*a*) Rich-mondshire in N. Riding. (*b*) Estates in SE. Lindsey, West Norfolk (Swaffham), S. Cambridgeshire, and Sussex (Hastings).

12. ROBERT DE VERE, EARL OF OXFORD. Estates mainly in N. and NE. Essex (Castle Hedingham).

The *baronial families*, not holding earldoms, have been less systematically marked upon the map.

The following rough list includes some of the remaining houses of the first importance, and also some lesser houses which took a prominent part in the reign of Edward I, or which attained greater importance during the fourteenth century.

(1) The MORTIMERS, certainly the greatest baronial family outside the earldoms, held, besides large estates in South Shropshire, a great aggregation of lordships marcher in the Middle March of Wales, including Wigmore (their chief ancient seat), Radnor, Maelynydd, Elvael, Deuddwr, Gwrthrennion, Arwystli, Kerry and Cydowain, with Chirkland in the Northern March. Ludlow, the seat of the Genvilles, went to them with Ewyas through the marriage of Roger, first Earl of March, to the heiress of the Genvilles. Outlying estates were in Gloucestershire (right bank of Severn) and Mid Somerset (Bridgewater).

(2) The *Mowbrays* had three great centres of influence, viz. N. Riding of Yorkshire (Thirsk, Vale of Mowbray), Lincolnshire (Isle of Axholme), and N. Leicestershire (Melton Mowbray).

(3) The *Nevilles*, S. and M. Durham (Brancepeth, Raby) and Yorkshire (Middleham and Sheriff Hutton).

(4) The *Percies*, E. and S. Yorkshire (Spofforth, Leconfield, and Topcliffe). They held also the barony of Petworth in Sussex. In 1309 the Bishop of Durham sold the Percies the barony of Alnwick, from which acquisition their great position in Northumberland began.

(5) *Redvers and Fors inheritance.* Though the earldoms of Devon and Albemarle were gone, Isabella of Fors still held half of Holderness, the Isle of Wight, and a large estate in central Devon. The *Courtenays*, lords of Oakhampton, were now the rising Devonshire family.

(6) Before the Scots war of independence the liberty of Tyndale and the barony of Appleby, with other lands, belonged to the *Scottish crown.* The *Bruces* (the elder line, lords of Skelton and Kendal, died out in 1271) held Hart in the bishopric of Durham, Writtle in Essex, and other English lands. The *Balliols*, besides Barnard Castle and other Durham lands, held several estates in Northumberland. The *Umfravilles*, earls of Angus, held the franchise of Redesdale.

(7) Among minor houses noted are those of *Fauconberg* (Skelton and Cleveland); *Ros* of Wark, Helmsley, and Kendal; Brian *Fitzalan*, lord of Bedale, Yorks; the *Hastings* of Abergavenny, Kilgerran, Emlyn, &c.; the Kentish house of *Leybourne*, which now shared with the *Cliffords* (a family from Herefordshire and the Welsh March, after 1310 also lords of Craven with Skipton) the Vipont lands and jurisdictions in Westmorland; the *Giffards* of Gloucestershire (Brimpsfield) and central Wiltshire, lords of Yskennin, Llandovery, and other lands in Wales; the *Greys*, of which family the most important branch was that of the lords of Wilton (Hereford) and the March of Duffryn Clwyd (Ruthin) in North Wales; the *Burnells*, for whom Bishop Burnell strove, though in vain, to make Acton Burnell the centre of a great Shropshire estate; and the *Despensers*, whose very scattered and not very numerous estates include a considerable tract in northern Wiltshire.

Among other points noted on the map may be mentioned (*a*) the more important *Jewries* before 1290, which include roughly the chief commercial centres[1]; (*b*) the towns that returned members to Edward I's parliaments, probably including most of the greater centres of organized municipal life; (*c*) Edward I's new foundations of Kingston-on-Hull and New Winchelsea; (*d*) the decaying ports of Ravenspur and Orwell, situated on land now engulphed in the sea; (*e*) the Cinque Ports with their members and dependents at the time of their greatest prosperity; (*f*) the chief battlefields of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; (*g*) some of the more important castles already existing in 1290[2].

T. F. TOUT.

Further details on the divisions of Wales can be found in the present writer's paper on the 'Welsh Shires' in 'Y Cymmrodor,' vol. ix, pt. 2, pp. 201–226, and more details as to the estates of the great earls in his paper on the 'Earldoms under Edward I' in 'Transactions of the Royal Historical Society,' New Ser., vol. viii, pp. 129–155.

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[1] This list is based on that given in Mr. Joseph Jacobs' 'Jews in Angevin England,' which describes the state of things before 1206. Towns which contained less than five Jewish families are not marked as Jewries. It is significant that all those places marked are (with the exception of Bungay, which only had nine Jewish families) parliamentary boroughs.

[2] The sites of castles are only marked in cases where the places had some other claims to mention, or a very special military importance. The choice of the date 1290 as the limit excludes many Northern castles, fortified after the failure of Edward I's policy in Scotland, and even places like the Percy strongholds in Yorkshire, Leconfield and Spofforth, the licences for their crenellation only dating from 1308 and 1309. Sir J. Mackenzie's 'Castles of England' has been of service in noting the castles.

XIX

THE ECCLESIASTICAL GEOGRAPHY OF ENGLAND

XIX

THE ECCLESIASTICAL GEOGRAPHY OF ENGLAND

THE boundaries of the English bishoprics remained singularly unchanged from the earliest days of Saxon Christianity down to the creation of the six new bishoprics of HENRY VIII. Some of them—for example, the boundaries of *London*, *Selsey* (*Chichester*), *Canterbury*, *Rochester*—were the same even in 1800 as they had been in 800. The earliest bishoprics were conterminous with the old English kingdoms of the eighth century. Originally *Essex*, *Sussex*, *East Anglia*, and even large states like *Mercia* or *Wessex*, had but a single bishop, who generally followed the royal court, and was in things ecclesiastical the counterpart of the king in things temporal. The systematic division of the larger kingdoms into bishoprics of less unwieldy size was the work of Archbishop THEODORE of Tarsus, who between 673 and 681 founded seven new sees. It is the arrangement of the dioceses after his activity was ended which is depicted in the small map inserted in the accompanying plate. We have chosen the date 780, long after the foundation of the last of the original bishoprics, that of Selsey, and before the two West Saxon sees were further subdivided by the creation of the smaller shire-bishoprics for *Somerset*, *Wilts*, and *Devon*. One point only in our map must be considered uncertain. This is the condition of South-East Mercia. After the West Saxon lands north of the Thames—the later shires of Oxon, Bucks, and Beds—had been conquered in 779 by Offa of Mercia, they ceased to form part of the West Saxon bishopric of *Winchester*. But whether they were thrown into the Mercian bishopric of *Leicester*, or whether the see of *Dorchester* in Oxfordshire—extinct since its bishop had been moved to Winchester, seventy years before—was then revived, we cannot be sure. We have no positive proof of the existence of the revived Dorchester till more than a hundred years later.

The map given by us serves to illustrate the condition of the English bishoprics down to the time of the great Danish invasions. The result of these disasters was to cut down the number of the bishops. The sees of *Hexham*, *Leicester*, *Sidnacester*, and *Dunwich* disappeared, and were never revived. In the tenth century we find a new distribution of the shires of Northern and Western England has taken place. *Lindisfarne* and *Hexham* unite to form the new bishopric of *Durham*. *Sidnacester*, *Leicester*, and *Dorchester* are all merged in a single vast see, reaching all the way from Thames to Humber, and with its bishopstool at *Dorchester*, at its southern extremity. *Dunwich* has been swallowed up by *Elmham*. While the bishoprics of the North and East were reduced in numbers in the tenth century, those of Southern England were increased. EDWARD THE ELDER subdivided *Winchester* by taking from it Berks and Wilts for his new see of *Ramsbury*, and *Sherborne* by giving Somerset a bishop at *Wells*, and Devon a bishop at *Crediton*. The final annexation of Cornwall to Wessex was marked in the time of Athelstan by the erection of one more see—that of *St. Germans*.

So things remained till the Norman Conquest, after which a general dislocation of the seats of the bishops took place, the Norman prelates moving in many cases from the small places where their Saxon predecessors had fixed their residence to the largest town in the diocese. Thus, the Bishop of Dorchester moved to *Lincoln*, his brother of Elmham first to Thetford and then to *Norwich*; *Exeter* took the place of Crediton and St. Germans, *Chichester* of Selsey, and *Sarum* (*Salisbury*) of Sherborne and Ramsbury. *Bath* was substituted for Wells, and the joint title of *Bath and Wells* was not established until near the middle of the thirteenth century. *Chester*, and then *Coventry*, for a time took the place of Lichfield; but before long the double style of *Coventry and Lichfield* became usual. Of actual changing of diocese-limits, however, there was comparatively little in the days of the Anglo-Norman kings. Two new sees only were created:—*Carlisle*, out of the lands newly won from the King of Scots by William Rufus; and *Ely*, out of a corner of the immense see of Lincoln. The Norman times are also notable for the creation of territorial archdeaconries. In Saxon days the archdeacon was an official of the bishop, having jurisdiction over the whole diocese. But now all the larger dioceses were cut up into smaller archdeaconries, often conterminous with the counties. For example, Remigius, the first bishop who dwelt at Lincoln, found only one archdeacon in his see, but left seven—for Lincoln, Leicester, Hunts, Bedford, Northants, Bucks, and Oxon respectively. Of all the English bishoprics only four—Canterbury, Rochester, Ely, and Carlisle—were considered so small as to require only a single archdeacon. Winchester, Chichester, Worcester, Hereford, Durham, have two each; London, Salisbury, and Wells are granted three; Exeter and Norwich four each; York and Lichfield five; and the enormous diocese of Lincoln, first seven and afterwards eight.

The first accurate ecclesiastical survey of England is that of the Taxatio Ecclesiastica made for Pope NICHOLAS IV in 1291. We have accordingly chosen this for our principal map, and marked in it the then existing boundaries both for bishoprics, archdeaconries, and rural deaneries. Where a see has but a single archdeaconry bearing the same name as the bishopric, this has been omitted.

The Rural Deaneries appear to be a creation of the later Anglo-Saxon times, being first distinctly mentioned by EDWARD THE CONFESSOR. As they are in the counties of the Danelaw nearly coincident with the Wapentakes, which were created after the invasion, but in Wessex and Mercia

ANGLIA SACRA

shewing the

ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS

in the

REIGN OF EDWARD I.

English Miles

REFERENCE

Hereford ..... 1. 2. 3. Weston

Lincoln ..... 1. Stamford
2. Martinsley
3. Oakham
4. Northampton
5. Lincoln
6. Leicester
7. Hornecastle
8. Oxford
9. 10. Risborough

Norwich ..... 1. Ipswich
2. Carlesford
3. Norwich

London ..... 1. Colchester
2. LONDON

Winchester ..... 1. Southward

Salisbury ..... 1. Wallingford

Exeter ..... 1. Exeter
2. Lawhitton
3. St Germans

THE ENGLISH DIOCESES C. 780

English Miles

LINDISFARNE
HEXHAM
YORK
LICHFIELD
SIDNACESTER
ELMHAM
LEICESTER
DUNWICH
HEREFORD
WORCESTER
DORCHESTER
LONDON
ROCHESTER
CANTERBURY
SHERBORNE
WINCHESTER
SELSEY

Long. West 2 of Greenwich

Long. West 2 of Greenwich

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh

Oxford: Clarendon Press

entirely different in extent from the hundreds, it seems clear that they were first organized in the tenth century, when Edward and Athelstan rearranged the bishoprics all over England. The boundaries represented in our map remained unchanged down to the reign of Henry VIII, except in Wales, where the rural deaneries were entirely rearranged in the fourteenth century. In England the only change in this period was the transfer of the Forest of Dean from the diocese of Hereford to that of Worcester, in order, no doubt, that the whole county of Gloucester might be united under the bishop of Worcester.

HENRY VIII created six new sees: the ephemeral diocese of *Westminster* lasted only ten years; but the other five continued. They were *Peterborough* for Northants; *Oxford* for Oxfordshire; *Chester* for Cheshire, Lancashire, and part of Yorkshire; *Gloucester* for Gloucestershire; and *Bristol* for the deanery of Bristol and the county of Dorset, an anomalous see whose cathedral city was separated by forty miles from the rest of the bishopric. On the destruction of Coventry cathedral the title of its bishop became *Lichfield and Coventry*. This arrangement is shown in plate 21, where the divisions are those of HENRY VIII's sees and the body-colouring indicates the previously existing sees from which they were detached. The newly erected cathedral cities are not, however, marked as such, since the primary object of that map is to display the Religious Houses subsisting before their establishment.

The dioceses as reorganized by HENRY VIII continued without alteration down to our own century, till the reign of VICTORIA saw the rapid increase of the episcopate, first by the erection of *Manchester* and *Ripon* into bishoprics, then, forty years later, by the creation of the new sees of *Truro*, *St. Albans*, *Newcastle*, *Liverpool*, *Southwell*, and *Wakefield*. Most of these new foundations involved a considerable change in the territory of the diocese and dioceses out of which they were formed; and the transfer of the archdeaconry of Coventry to Worcester left its former diocesan bishop only of *Lichfield*. This latest condition of things is shown in a small map inserted in plate 21.

C. OMAN.

XX

ENGLAND AND WALES UNDER THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER

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XX

ENGLAND AND WALES UNDER THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER

THIS map is primarily intended to exhibit (1) the large exceptions to uniformity of local government and parliamentary representation at the close of the middle ages; (2) the vast changes in the holders of land between 1290 and 1455, especially the concentration of estates and franchises in the hands of the crown; and (3) the local distribution of parties in the Wars of the Roses.

I. **The absence of administrative uniformity** is brought out by the use of surface colour for the chief districts, excluded wholly or in part from the ordinary working of the shire and parliamentary system. Wales of course occupied an entirely separate position and did not send members to parliament until the next century. The *Principality*, though for convenience divided into shires, was governed as a dependency of the PRINCE OF WALES. The county palatine of *Flint* was closely associated with that of *Chester*, and both were in the hands of the Prince of Wales. The lords marcher of the *March* enjoyed the same semi-regal privileges, though only one of these lordships—*Pembroke*—held the formal position of a county palatine. The great lordship of *Glamorgan* had, however, a partial shire organization and was virtually a county palatine. The *March* included on the east many districts which were thrown into the neighbouring English counties by the Statute 27 Hen. VIII, c. 26, which completed the division of Wales into shires. A comparison of the lordships then annexed with the hundred boundaries permits the earlier frontier between England and Wales to be reproduced with substantial accuracy.

The boundaries within the March cannot in every case claim the same degree of accuracy. They are based on a comparison of the later hundred boundaries with the data supplied by the 'Inquisitiones post mortem,' 'the Rolls of Parliament,' Owen's 'Description of Pembrokeshire' (with valuable notes by the editor, Henry Owen), and Professor Tout's paper in 'Y Cymmrodor,' ix. 201. The map in Warrington's 'History of Wales' (1783) may be compared. The lords of Kemes seem to have claimed, but could not always maintain, their independence of the earldom of Pembroke. Their relations are elucidated in 'Baronia de Kemeys' (Cambrian Archaeological Association). The fullest information concerning the lordship of Glamorgan is given in the Land of Morgan and other papers of Mr. G. T. Clark in the 'Archaeologia Cambrensis.' The part coloured dark green is the 'shire fee' (under a sheriff), the light green part the ten 'members' of the lordship. For Flint, see the Stat. 33 Hen. VIII, c. 13, and 'Rot. Parl.' V. 382.

But even in England there were many liberties or franchises which in a greater or less degree stood outside the general organization of the kingdom. This exemption was greatest in the case of *Cheshire*, a true county palatine, and *Durham*, a virtual one (though in origin only a group of *honours* within the county of *Northumberland*), where the king's writ did not run and from which no members were sent to parliament. The county of *Lancaster*, though made palatine in 1351 in matters of justice, retained its parliamentary representation. In the moorlands on the Scottish border the franchises of *Redesdale*, *Tyndale* and *Hexhamshire* formed no part of the county of Northumberland[1]. In the *Isle of Ely* the bishop claimed the cognizance of all pleas, and the inhabitants commuted (1431) their obligation to contribute to the payment of the knights of the shire for Cambridgeshire. The *duchy of Lancaster*, the *duchy of Cornwall*, and the *Cinque Ports* also enjoyed various *jura regalia*, but not forming continuous areas could not be shown in colour. Other franchises with less extensive exemptions are illustrated on the map by the cases of *Peterborough* and *Havering atte Bower*.

Berwick and the *Isle of Man* each occupied a distinct position of its own. The kings of England were only suzerains of the lords of Man. Parliament legislated for 'the kingdom of England and the town of Berwick on Tweed.'

II. **Changes in the ownership of land since 1290.** Between the date of map 18 and the opening of the Wars of the Roses, nearly all the greater noble houses of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries have disappeared. The illustrious names of BEAUCHAMP (of Warwick), BOHUN, BIGOD, CLARE, LACY, MORTIMER and WARENNE, with others less distinguished, are absent from our map. The FITZALANS, earls of Arundel, still last on with somewhat diminished lustre, but the names outside the royal house which are common to both maps are chiefly those of north country families of quite secondary importance in 1290, which in the interval have risen to the first rank,—PERCY, NEVILLE and MOWBRAY. The Percies have ceased to be exclusively connected with YORKSHIRE, and their principal holding is now in Northumberland. The vast heritages of the BEAUCHAMPS, DESPENSERS and MONTACUTES have swollen the modest possessions of the Nevilles to immense proportions. The lands of BIGOD, BRAOSE and WARENNE now belong to the MOWBRAYS. A branch of the royal house, that of YORK, has absorbed the wide estates of the MORTIMERS. The STAFFORDS, dukes of Buckingham, hold many broad lands that belonged in 1290 to the BOHUNS and CLARES. But the most striking difference between the two maps consists in the concentration of a large part of the land of England in the hands of the King and the Prince of Wales at the later date. To the principality of Wales and the earldom of Chester have been successively added the great possessions of EDMUND OF CORNWALL, and the still greater heritage of EDMUND OF LANCASTER, the latter augmented by the absorption of the Lacy lands and half the Bohun estates, and formed into a duchy. The poverty and weakness of the crown in spite of these enormous possessions constitute one of the most surprising features of fifteenth century history.

[1] Their privileges were abolished, in 1536 (Redesdale), 1495 (Tyndale), 1572 (Hexhamshire), respectively.

ENGLAND AND WALES

under the

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

English Miles

0 5 0 10 20 30 40 50

EXPLANATION.

- English shires (except Lancashire)
- Subdivisions of shires
- Cities and boroughs forming counties of themselves
- " " " returning members to parliament — Carlisle
- The Cinque Ports — DOVER
- " " " Ancient Towns — Rye
- " " " Corporate members — Deal
- Towns with Hanseatic 'Counters' — Boston(H)
- Ecclesiastical Franchises
- Lay Franchises held by subjects
- Royal Franchises in England and Wales
- Other royal estates " " " " — D. OF LANCASTER, NEW FOREST, STAFFORD.
- Estates of Lancastrians " " "
- " " Yorkists " " "
- Limits of the Principality of Wales
- The March of Wales
- The Isle of Man
- Castles
- Battlefields

MARCH OF WALES (South Portion) On Enlarged Scale English Miles

0 5 10 15 20

Long. W. 3°30' of Greenw.

ISLE OF MAN

Castle Rushen

Long. West 2 of Greenwich

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh

Oxford: Clarendon Press

III. **Local distribution of parties in the Wars of the Roses.** In order to give at a glance an idea of the relative numerical and landed strength of the two parties at the opening of the war in 1455, the names of the Yorkist nobles have been printed over the districts in which they held estates in blue, those of the Lancastrians in red. The use of a not very dissimilar brown for the lands of the house of Lancaster itself enables the whole territorial strength of the ruling dynasty to be grasped in a single view. The comparative inferiority of the Yorkists in this respect in England, their superiority in the *March of Wales*, which gave a title to the future EDWARD IV, and the great extent and wide diffusion of the lands held by the Yorkist branch of the house of Neville, are the chief facts brought out. The names in red and blue are those of the families, not their titles, with the exception of the duke of York himself, who in 1455 had not yet assumed the surname of Plantagenet[1]. The names of families whose politics are not known have been printed and underlined in black. In one or two cases, however, this information has been supplied in the following index of titles:

Beauchamp	Lord St. Amand.
Beaufort	Duke of Somerset.
Beaumont	Viscount Beaumont.
Berkeley	Lord Berkeley.
Bonville	Lord Bonville.
Bourchier	Viscount Bourchier [E. of Essex, 1461].
Brooke	Lord Cobham.
Butler	E. of Wiltshire and Ormond.
Clifford	Lord Clifford.
Courtenay	Earl of Devon.
Cromwell	Lord Cromwell.
Dacre	Lord Dacre of Gilsland.
De la Pole	Duke of Suffolk.
Dymmock	Sir Thos. Dymmock or Dymoke [Lancastrian].
Dynham	Sir John [in 1466 Lord] Dynham.
Fastolf	Sir John Fastolf.
Ferrers	Walter Devereux, Lord Ferrers of Chartley (*Staffs.*).
Ferrers of Groby	See Grey.
Fitzalan	Earl of Arundel.
Fitz-hugh	Lord Fitz-hugh [Yorkist in 1461].
Grey (*red*)	Lord Grey of Codnor [Yorkist 1461].
,, ,,	Lord Grey of Groby (Leic.).
Grey of Wark	Sir Ralph Grey [also of Heton and Chillingham].
Grey (*blue*)	Sir John Grey of Powis.
,, ,,	Lord Grey of Ruthin.
Greystock	Lord Greystock [Yorkist 1461].
Holland	Duke of Exeter.
Hungerford	Lord Moleyns.
Legh	(Sir) Piers de Legh of Lyme [Yorkist].
Lovel	Lord Lovel.
Mowbray	Duke of Norfolk.
Neville (*red*)	Earl of Westmorland.
Neville (*blue*)	Lord Abergavenny.
,, ,,	Lord Fauconberg [Cleveland].
,, ,,	Earl of Salisbury [*Essex*, *Hants.*, *Somerset*, *Yorks.*, *Wilts.*].
,, ,,	Earl of Warwick [*Durham* (Barnard Cas.), *Herts.*, *Oxon.*, *Rutland*, *Warwickshire*, *Worcestershire*, *Glamorgan* in the March].
Paston	John Paston.
Percy	Earl of Northumberland.
Roos	Lord Roos of Hamlake (Helmsley).
Scrope (*red*)	Lord Scrope of Masham [Yorkist 1461].
,, (*blue*)	Lord Scrope of Bolton.
,, (*black*)	Stephen Scrope of Castle Combe.
Stafford	Duke of Buckingham.
Stanley	Thomas Stanley.
Strange	John le Strange of Knockyn.
Talbot	Earl of Shrewsbury.
Tiptoft	Earl of Worcester.
Tudor	Earl of Richmond (*Yorks.*).
,,	Earl of Pembroke.
Vere	Earl of Oxford.
Welles	Lord Welles.
West	Lord De la Warr.
York	Richard Duke of York.

[1] By an accident the lands of Lord Ferrers of Chartley bear the name of his title.

IV. **Towns.** The use of a special type for towns returning members to parliament about 1455 brings out the small amount of borough representation in the North as compared with the South. Thus *Lancashire* contained not a single parliamentary borough, while *Wiltshire* had no less than sixteen. The map also illustrates the recent acquisition by the larger towns of the shire jurisdiction, which up to 1373 London alone had enjoyed. The *Cinque Ports* proper are distinguished from their two ancient towns (all seven sent members to parliament) and their eight corporate members; and the towns on the *East Coast* in which the *Hanseatic League* had houses or 'Counters' are marked by an (H.).

The divisions of *Kent* are the lathes, those of *Sussex* the rapes, those in *Cumberland* baronies (except *Bewcastle*, *Dalston*, *Englewood Forest* and *Alston Moor*), and those in the shires of the Principality of Wales either cantreds (*cantrefs*), or commotes (*cymwds*). In *Buckinghamshire* the Chiltern Hundreds have been inadvertently placed a little too far north in the map.

Though in most respects, especially in the distribution of the land and the parliamentary representation, the map represents the actual state of things in the year 1455, this rule has not been too strictly applied. The town of *Ravenspurne*, for instance, was already a thing of the past when HENRY OF LANCASTER landed close by in 1399 ('Annales Ricardi II,' p. 244; T. Thompson, 'Historic Facts relative to Ravenspurne in Holderness'). The other lost port, *Orwell*, whose position has been conjecturally indicated from data given in Morant's 'History of Essex,' did not disappear until the sixteenth century.

V. **The South-Eastern part of the Welsh March** will be found on an enlarged scale in an inset map. This has for its main purpose to show the cluster of Marcher castles which guarded the lower course of the Usk and Wye and the intervening country.

JAMES TAIT.

XXI

ANGLIA MONASTICA

XXI

ANGLIA MONASTICA

AMONG the various churches and monastic foundations of England and Wales, all the GREATER HOUSES of the *Valor Ecclesiasticus*, of 26 Henry VIII, that is to say, all whose incomes reached or exceeded £200 in clear annual value, have been inserted in the map or mentioned in the table given below. These were exempt from the operation of the first general order for the suppression of the lesser houses in 1536, but were dissolved in pursuance of the act of 1539. Of the LESSER HOUSES a selection has been made—in the case of England—of those whose incomes reached or exceeded £150 *per annum* in clear value; but occasional exceptions have been made, and some Houses of lower value have been inserted for special reasons, as in the case of Newsham in Lincolnshire, the first house of the Premonstratensian Canons founded in this country. A few even of the more famous CELLS (however insignificant at the time of the dissolution), without which no monastic map of England would seem complete, have been included, such as Lindisfarne, Wearmouth, and Jarrow. With regard to the selection of the WELSH ABBEYS, many of which were great in acreage though not in revenue, no definite rule has been followed, but merely the better-known ones inserted.

The names of the PARLIAMENTARY ABBEYS here given are taken from the lists of Houses whose Abbots were regularly summoned to Parliament at the close of the fifteenth century, when the number so summoned had been greatly reduced, and was fairly stationary at twenty-seven. Where it has been found impossible clearly to distinguish these in the map itself, as, for instance, in the case of St. Augustine's, Canterbury, which was, of course, second in dignity to the Cathedral Church, a note has been inserted in the table below.

Each city and town, with the single exception of London, appears in the map under the name of its leading church or house. It has been found impracticable, therefore, to mark in the map itself the distribution of the various orders of FRIARS, who were settled in almost all the cities and towns. The presence of the four greater Orders, the Dominican or Black (D.), the Franciscan or Grey (F.), the Carmelite or White (Carm.), and the Augustinian (A), has, however, been noticed in the table below. The latter is designed to show the distribution of the various Orders in certain of the cities and towns with regard to which the mere mention of the leading Church, or House, in the map seemed inadequate. To this list, moreover, have been added the names of those towns in which *all* the four Orders were at work.

In the following table the signs of abbreviation are in general the same as those given in the map. Besides them B=Benedictine, A=Austin. Convents of women are here printed in italics.

	MONKS.	CANONS.	FRIARS.
BOSTON (Linc.)	. . . . .	. . . . .	D., F., Carm., A.
BRISTOL	*B.*	A. (St. Augustine's, became Cath. 1542.)	D., F., Carm., A.
"	B. (Cell to Tewkesbury.)		
CAMBRIDGE	B. (Coll., now St. Mary Magdalen.)	G. (St. Edmund's.)	D., F., Carm., A.
CANTERBURY	B. (Cath., Christ Church.)	A. (Pr., St. Gregory's.)	D., F., A.
"	B. (Parl. Abbey, St. Augustine's.)		
"	*B.*		
CHESTER	B. (St. Werburgh's, became Cath. 1541.)	. . . . .	D., F., Carm.
"	*B.*		
COLCHESTER	B. (Parl. Abb., St. John's.)	A. (Pr., St. Botolph's.)	F.
COVENTRY	B. (Cath. Pr. Parl.)	A. (Hosp., St. John Baptist.)	F., Carm.
"	Ca. (St. Anne's.)		
GLOUCESTER	B. (St. Peter's, Parl. Abb., became Cath. 1541.)	A. (St. Oswald's.)	D., F., Carm.
LINCOLN	B. (Cell to St. Mary's, York.)	Secular Canons (Cath.) G. (St. Catherine's.)	D., F., Carm., A.
LONDON	See enlarged plan.		
LYNN (Norfolk)	B. (Cell to Norwich Cath., Pr.)		D., F., Carm., A.
NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE.	*B.*	. . . . .	D., F., Carm., A.
NORTHAMPTON	Cl. (Pr. St. Andrew's.)	A. (Pr., St. James's.)	D., F., Carm., A.
NORWICH	B. (Cath. Pr.)	. . . . .	D., F., Carm., A.
"	B. (Priory.)		
OXFORD	B. (Coll., Durham.)	A. (Pr., St. Frideswide's, became Cath. 1546.)	D., F., Carm., A.
"	B. (Coll., Gloucester.)		
"	B. (Coll., Canterbury.)	A. (Coll., St. Mary's.)	
"	C. (Coll., St. Bernard's.)	A. (Abb., Oseney, became Cath. from 1542 to 1545.)	
"	C. (Abb., Rewley.)		
PETERBOROUGH	B. (Parl. Abb., became Cath. 1541.)		
SHREWSBURY	B. (Parl. Abb.)	. . . . .	D., F., A.
STAMFORD (Lincolnshire.)	B. (Cell to Durham.)	. . . . .	D., F., Carm., A.
THETFORD	*B.*	A. (House of Canons of the Holy Sepulchre.)	D., A.
"	Cl. (Priory.)		
WINCHESTER	B. (Cath., St. Swithun's.)	. . . . .	D., F., Carm., A.
"	B. (Parl. Abb., Hyde.)		
"	*B.*		
YORK	B. (Parl. Abb., St. Mary's.)	Sec. Can. (Cath.). A. (Hosp., St. Leonard's.)	D., F., Carm., A.
"	B. (Pr., Holy Trinity.)	G. (St. Andrew's.)	
"	*B.*		

The diocesan rearrangements shown in this map and in the inset map of 1888 are explained in the preface to plate 19.

ALICE M. COOKE.

ANGLIA MONASTICA

shewing the principal

RELIGIOUS HOUSES IN ENGLAND & WALES

in the time of Henry VIII

together with the

DIOCESES FORMED AFTER THEIR SUPPRESSION

English Miles

REFERENCE

Cath. Ch. of Monks ..... ✠ DURHAM
" " Canons ..... ✠ LINCOLN
Par. Abbeys (Bened.) ..... + READING
" " (Aust. Can.) ..... + WALTHAM
Colleges of Sec. Canons ..... ○ RIPON
Abbeys & Priories (Bened.) ..... + Barking
" " (Cluniac) ..... + Lewes (Cl)
" " (Cisterc.) ..... + Roche (C)
" " (Carthus.) ..... + Witham (Ca.)
Cells (Bened.) ..... ○ Jarrow
Houses of Regular Canons (Aust.) ..... + Bolton
" " (Premonstr.) ..... + Welbeck (P)
" " (Gilbert.) ..... + Watton (G)

ENGLISH DIOCESES 1888

English Miles

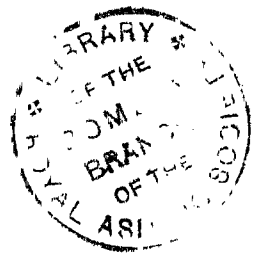
SODOR AND MAN
CARLISLE
DURHAM
NEWCASTLE ON TYNE
RIPON
WAKEFIELD
LIVERPOOL
MANCHESTER
CHESTER
SOUTHWELL
LINCOLN
BANGOR
ST ASAPH
LICHFIELD
PETERBOROUGH
NORWICH
HEREFORD
WORCESTER
ELY
ST DAVIDS
LLANDAFF
GLOUCESTER & BRISTOL
OXFORD
LONDON
ST ALBANS
ST ASAPH
CANTERBURY
BATH & WELLS
SALISBURY
WINCHESTER
CHICHESTER
EXETER
TRURO

Longitude West 2 of Greenwich

Lindisfarne or Holy Island
Berwick (P)
Newminster (C)
TO YORK
Tynemouth
Jarrow
Wearmouth
Hexham
Lanercost
SCARLISLE
Holme Cultram (C)
CARLISLE
DURHAM
BISHOP AUCKLAND
Whitby
Shap (P)
Mount Grace (Ca.)
Coverham (P)
Jervaux (C)
Byland (C)
Rievaulx (C)
Fountains (C)
RIPON
Marton
Old Malton (C)
Kirkham
Bridlington
Gisborough (C)
Bolton
YORK
Watton (G)
Whalley (C)
Kirkstall (C)
BEVERLEY
Meaux (C)
Kingston-upon-Hull (Ca)
SELBY
Pontefract (Cl)
Thornton-upon-Humber
Nostell
Newsham (P)
Epworth (Ca)
Monk Bretton (C)
MANCHESTER
Roche (C)
Worksop
Welbeck (P)
Bullington (C)
Barlings (P)
LINCOLN
Kirkstead (C)
BARDNEY
Revesby (C)
TATTERSHALL
Rufford (C)
Birkenhead
Norton
Basingwerk (C)
Chester
Vale Royal (C)
Penmon
BANGOR
Maenan (C)
Valle Crucis (C)
Conbermere (C)
Beauvale (Ca.)
Lenton (Cl)
Darley
Thurgarton
Swineshead (C)
Scrapingham (G)
Graxton (G)
COVENTRY & LICHFIELD
Lilleshull
Burton-on-Trent
Haughmond
SHREWSBURY
Strata Marcella (C)
Garendon (C)
Owston
LEICESTER
Launde
Pangwell (C)
PETERBOROUGH
CROWLAND
Spalding
Bourn
Walsingham
Westacre
Castle Acre (Cl)
Horsham
HOLME St BENET
Pentney
West Dereham (P)
NORWICH
Wymondham
Thetford (Cl)
METTINGHAM
Eye
Ixworth
Sibton (C)
Leiston (P)
BURY ST EDMUNDS
Barnwell
Cambridge (Austin Fr.)
Campsey Ash
STOKE-BY-CLARE
Bradley
Wenlock (C)
Merevale (C)
Hales Owen (P)
Combe (C)
Stoneleigh (C)
Kenilworth
COVENTRY
Baddesley (C)
WARWICK
Wigmore
Strata Florida (C)
Lenn minster
WORCESTER
Pershore
Great Malvern
St Dogmells
Pulley (P)
Brecknock
Llanthony
Tewkesbury
HEREFORD
Hanley
WINCHCOMB
GLOUCESTER
Llanthony
Abergavenny
Tintern (C)
Cirencester
Kingswood (C)
Margam (C)
LLANDAFF
Weather
BRISTOL
Bradenstoke
MALMESBURY
Bristol
WESTBURY
Keynsham
Stanley (C)
Lacock
Monkton Farleigh (P)
Edington
WELLS
Henton (C)
Witham (Ca)
GLASTONBURY
Amesbury
Wherwell
Waverley (C)
WINCHESTER
SALISBURY
Wilton
Cleeve (C)
BATH
Bruton
Spinlesbury
Mudhelney
Montacute (Cl)
Sherborne
Hartland
Dunkeswell (C)
Torre
Buckfastleigh (C)
Launceston
Tavistock
Buckland (C)
Bodmin
St Germans
Plympton
Tor (P)
PENRYN
EXETER
St MARY
Polsloe
Newenham (C)
Abbotsbury
Quarr (C)
Christchurch
Beaulieu (C)
Breamore
Tichfield
CHICHESTER
Ramsey
Southwick
Chichester
Abingdon
Thame (C)
Notley
Ashridge Coll.
Missenden
Dorchester
Reading
READING
Windsor
Chertsey
Merton
Newark
Waverley (C)
Bisham
WESTMINSTER
ETON
Cheam (C)
Dartford
Barking
LONDON
Stratford Langthorne (C)
Ilford (Cl)
Beleigh (P)
ST ALBANS
WALTHAM
Thremhall
Little Dunmow
Coggeshall (C)
St Osyth
Tiley (C)
Earls Colne
COLCHESTER (St John's)
Woburn (C)
Ilunstaple
Warden (C)
Wardon
Charlesmisth
Northampton (C) (St Andrew's)
St Neots
Newenham
Elstow
Huntingdon
RAMSEY
ELY
Isleham
Barnwell
Cambridge (Austin Fr.)
Campsey Ash
Bradley
Warden
Earls Colne
COLCHESTER (St John's)
Coggeshall (C)
St Osyth
Tiley (C)
Thremhall
Little Dunmow
Beleigh (P)
Barking
Stratford Langthorne (C)
Ilford (Cl)
Bisham
WESTMINSTER
LONDON
ETON
Cheam (C)
Dartford
Merton
Chertsey
Newark
Waverley (C)
Wherwell
Amesbury
SALISBURY
Wilton
WINCHESTER
Ramsey
Southwick
Chichester
Breamore
Tichfield
Beaulieu (C)
Christchurch
Quarr (C)
Abbotsbury
Newenham (C)
Torre
Montacute (Cl)
Sherborne
Mudhelney
Spinlesbury
Bruton
Cleeve (C)
Henton (C)
Witham (Ca)
GLASTONBURY
Edington
WELLS
Monkton Farleigh (P)
Lacock
Keynsham
Stanley (C)
Bristol
WESTBURY
Bradenstoke
MALMESBURY
Abingdon
Thame (C)
Notley
Ashridge Coll.
Missenden
Dorchester
Reading
READING
Windsor
Chertsey
Merton

XXII

ENGLAND AND WALES AFTER THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR



XXII

ENGLAND AND WALES AFTER THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR

1. THE accompanying map is designed to serve for general reference for the English history of the three centuries following the accession of Henry VII. The date represented by it, nearly midway in that period, is chosen because the rearrangement of seats in Parliament effected by the Instrument of Government, December 16, 1653, indicates at least roughly the distribution of population and property in the middle of the seventeenth century. Mr. C. H. Firth has kindly supplied the following note on the origin and object of the readjustment:—'In August, 1647, the Army demanded of the Parliament, in the Heads of the Proposals offered by them for the settlement of the kingdom, that there should be a redistribution of seats, *so as all counties may have a number of Parliament members allowed to their choice proportionable to the respective rates they bear in the common charges and burdens of the kingdom, or according to some other rule of equality or proportion.* With this object they asked *that a present consideration be had to take off the election of burgesses for poor, decayed, or inconsiderable towns, and to give some present addition to the number of Parliament members for great counties that have now less than their due proportion.* In the Agreement of the People, presented to Parliament in January, 1649, the Army put forward a detailed scheme for redistribution, which specified that there should be in all not more than 400 members, and allotted them in detail to various counties and boroughs. In the bill *for the dissolving of this present Parliament and the calling of future and successive Parliaments*, which was about to be passed when Cromwell put an end to the Long Parliament in April, 1653, that assembly had embodied a similar scheme. By this it gave 400 members to England, and 30 each to Scotland and Ireland; it proposed to abolish most of the small boroughs, though it allowed a larger number of them to retain their members than the Agreement of the People had done. The draught of this bill has not been preserved, but from the entries relating to it in the Journals of the House of Commons it is evident that the scheme of representation embodied in the draught bill was adopted without any material alteration by the officers who drew up the Instrument of Government.'

The Agreement of the People made provision for only 351 out of the contemplated total of 400 members, leaving the remainder to be added after further consideration; and the Instrument of Government in completing the number added very largely to the borough representation, their number being increased from 77 to 135. According to this latter the English county representation, though extensively modified in detail, was left in the aggregate the same (239), but the members for the counties of Wales and Monmouthshire[1] were reduced from 35 to 26[2]. The only English counties which received fewer members (reckoning county and borough members together) than had been arranged by the Agreement of the People were Cheshire, Derbyshire, Durham, Middlesex, and Northumberland. Those which gained most were Cornwall (raised from 8 to 12), Somerset (from 12 to 18), Southampton County (from 10 to 14), Surrey (from 7 to 10), Sussex (from 9 to 14), and Wiltshire (from 8 to 14). These particulars suggest that the statistical information upon which the redistribution was based was imperfect, or else that it was in part superseded by considerations of policy. Still a map drawn from these materials probably gives as fair a general picture of the relative importance of the different parts of England as we are likely to obtain from any other source[3].

2. No attempt has been made to indicate the areas of special jurisdiction which were gradually restricted from the time of Henry VIII onwards. Their extent in the fifteenth century is shown in Plate XX and explained in its preface. The following notes may be of use in regard to some of the more important territories. The jurisdiction of the counties palatine and other franchises was curtailed by the Act for recontinuing Liberties in the Crown, 27 Hen. VIII. cap. 24; but the Archbishop of York and the Bishops of Durham and Ely were confirmed in their special rights, respectively, in the shire and liberty of *Hexham* or *Hextoldsham*, the county

[1] In the earlier document Monmouthshire is included in Wales; in the later, in England.

[2] The loss was not really so large, since Wales was now given two parliamentary boroughs, whereas under the Agreement it was assigned none.

[3] A misprint in the map should be noticed, *Deal* being written in Roman instead of italic letters.

ENGLAND AND WALES

After the Accession of the

HOUSE OF TUDOR

Showing also the

PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION IN 1654.

English Miles

10 5 0 10 20 30 40 50

EXPLANATION

Constituencies returning one member ..... Bedford

" " two " ..... EXETER

" " six " ..... LONDON

Other Places ..... Newark

The universities of Oxford & Cambridge returned each one member.

Figures in red beneath the name of a county indicate the number of members returned by it.

Castles ..... Battlefields .....

6 4 2 0 2

54 52 50

Long. West 2 of Greenwich

Environs of LONDON on enlarged Scale

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh

Oxford : Clarendon Press

palatine of *Durham*, and the isle of *Ely*. In the same session, cap. 26, *Wales* was 'incorporated, united, and annexed to and with' the realm of England, and the Marches were partly divided into shires, partly included in the bordering English shires. The county palatine of *Flint* was similarly dealt with by 33 Hen. VIII. cap. 13. The county palatine of *Chester*, having been deprived of its peculiar privileges, was empowered to return members to Parliament in 1542 (34 & 35 Hen. VIII. cap. 13). Thirty years later Hexhamshire was thrown into the county of Northumberland (14 Eliz. cap. 13). The franchises of *Tyndale* and *Redesdale*, forming part of the Middle Marches, were likewise incorporated after the union of the English and Scottish crowns by James I, when the name of the Marches, English and Scottish, was exchanged for that of the Middle Shires of Britain. *Durham*, if we set aside the short-lived arrangements of the Protectorate, first returned members to Parliament in 1675, but the palatine jurisdiction of the Bishop was not transferred to the Crown until 1836 (6 Will. IV. cap. 19).

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XXIII

PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION OF ENGLAND AND WALES DOWN TO 1832

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PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION OF ENGLAND AND WALES DOWN TO 1832

THE sheriffs of the various Counties were ordered to send knights representative to parliament in 1213, 1254, and on other occasions before 1290, but the records of the names of members returned begin with the parliament of that year, when thirty-seven English counties were summoned. This number was regularly maintained till 1545, when the counties of *Chester* and *Monmouth* made their appearance. The county of *Durham* sent members first in 1675, in accordance with the statute 25 Car. II. 9. The English counties have always, with very rare exceptions, sent two members each. For a few years in EDWARD II's reign the *Isle of Wight* was represented separately from the county of *Southampton*.

Members from *North* and *South Wales* were summoned in 1322, and in 1327 three counties of North Wales returned seventeen members, but the parliamentary history of Wales really begins with the statute 27 Hen. VIII, c. 26. The Welsh counties were probably represented in 1539 (returns lost); the first extant returns date from 1542. The representation of Wales, at first somewhat irregular, becomes uniform after the end of Mary's reign. Except in 1327, the Welsh counties always sent one member each.

The Borough representation is far less regular than that of the counties. The composition of mediaeval parliaments varies more or less from year to year, and there is probably not a single borough which can trace an uninterrupted series of attendances from its original appearance down to the end of the Middle Ages. Many boroughs are summoned only once, others only twice or thrice; others, after a continuous existence of some years, drop out, never to appear again, or to be revived in the sixteenth or seventeenth century. Others again keep up for many years a fitful and broken series of appearances, and then either die out or become finally established. This variety of treatment was probably due, in the main, to local causes, for the selection of boroughs was practically left in the hands of the sheriff, but the nominations and omissions, whether occasional or permanent, may also have been due to party-struggles or occult influences at head-quarters. The larger boroughs were doubtless too well established to be passed over, except on rare occasions; but, beyond this, it seems difficult to make any generalization.

Borough members were first summoned in 1265, but, besides *York* and *Lincoln*, it is not known what boroughs were represented. In 1283 writs were sent to twenty large towns, which are therefore entered below under that year, but the earliest extant returns belong to the famous parliament of 1295. No less than 110 boroughs are known to have been summoned on that occasion; this number should probably be increased by five or six, since the returns from *Norfolk* and *Suffolk* are wanting. So large an assembly never met again during the Middle Ages. Of these 110 boroughs, some fourteen never re-appear, or appear only once or twice again; about as many more are summoned only occasionally, before the Tudor times. Thus only about ninety of what may be called the original boroughs can be regarded as effectives. EDWARD I summoned some sixty-five other boroughs (exclusive of the *Cinque Ports*, for which see below) to the various parliaments of his reign, but little more than half of these continued as fairly regular attendants. If we exclude the parliament of 1283 and the abnormally small parliament of 1299, the average number of boroughs summoned during Edward I's reign is about ninety.

The parliaments of EDWARD II show a great falling off, especially after the notable year 1311. In this reign only ten new English boroughs appear, while many more die out. The average attendance is less than seventy.

EDWARD III summoned thirty-six new boroughs, of which twenty occur in the abnormal parliament of 1337. But, of these, fourteen never put in a second appearance, while thirteen more appeared only once or twice during the Middle Ages. Consequently only nine of Edward III's new boroughs can be regarded as permanent additions to the list, and among these should be reckoned the seven Cinque Ports, from which 'barons' were summoned as early as 1302, but which do not seem to have made returns till 1366. Some few boroughs, which had fallen away, were revived, mostly only for a time. But these additions were more than counterbalanced by cessations, and the average attendance does not appear to have exceeded sixty-two.

From 1366 to 1447 there is practically no change in the composition of the Lower House. No new boroughs appear: five or six are revived, and about as many (during the reign of RICHARD II) undergo a temporary eclipse. This is the first stationary period in the history of Parliament. It is also a comparatively stationary period in the development of governmental institutions and parliamentary rights, for, though the early Lancastrian parliaments gained considerable control over the executive, this advance was but temporary. During this period from ninety-two to ninety-eight boroughs may be reckoned on the active list, and the average attendance is about eighty. Of the ninety-eight active boroughs no less than sixty-one were situated in the nine southernmost counties of England, and thirty-three of them are shared between *Sussex*, *Wiltshire*, and *Dorset*.

The party-struggles of HENRY VI's reign produced some change. Between 1447 and 1460 about a dozen boroughs were added or revived, and there are no permanent cessations.

EDWARD IV made very little change, and his immediate successors appear to have made none at all. It was reserved

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for HENRY VIII and his children to effect the great series of additions which practically placed parliamentary representation on the basis which it retained till 1832.

The returns from 1478 to 1529 are unfortunately lost, but, assuming that the two new and the six revived boroughs which appear in 1529 owe their summons to Henry VII or Henry VIII, and omitting two Welsh boroughs summoned once only (in 1555), the Tudors may be said to have added or revived about ninety boroughs; that is, they nearly doubled the strength of the Lower House. The most important additions (besides the twelve Welsh counties) are those of twelve boroughs in Wales—three of these had appeared in 1327 (see above)—and a number of boroughs (fourteen new, one revived) in Cornwall, which was now by far the most heavily represented county in England. The other additions or revivals are scattered over twenty-three counties; six are in *Lancashire*, eight in *Hants* and the *Isle of Wight*, and eight in *Yorkshire*. About one-third of the total number of these boroughs had sent members occasionally before. Excepting *Presteign* and *Newborough* (both in Wales), and *Calais*, no borough once summoned by the Tudors was allowed subsequently to fall away.

Later changes are but few. JAMES I added two boroughs (the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge), and revived nine. Eleven more were revived under CHARLES I by the action of parliament itself. The first two Protectorate Parliaments (1654, 1656) were so exceptional that no account can be taken of them here. The parliament called by Richard Cromwell, in January, 1659, was practically a reversion to the old system. With the revival of *Newark* in 1661, and the addition of *Durham* in 1678, the list of parliamentary boroughs is closed till 1832. There are some slight irregularities in the first three parliaments of CHARLES II's reign, but—except for the addition of the Scotch and Irish members, and the disappearance of *Grampound* (disfranchised in 1821)—the composition of the House of Commons in 1832 is identical with that of the second parliament of 1679.

The accompanying map is based mainly on the Parliamentary Returns, printed in 1878–9, also on Palgrave's 'Parliamentary Writs' (1827–34), and here and there on Browne Willis' 'Notitia Parliamentaria.' It is hoped that it is fairly accurate, but it is difficult to avoid slips where so many minute details are concerned.

The dates given in the map are those of first or subsequent summons, not necessarily of returns. I have preferred to quote the former, for the deficiencies in the latter may be due either to the return not having been made or to its having been lost. The Cinque Ports, though first summoned in 1302, are entered under 1332, for in the latter year the separate ports are first mentioned.

An arrow (→) after the date means that a county or borough was represented continuously from that year to 1832. The undated counties were summoned from the first. Small interruptions of continuity (which are very frequent) have not been noticed; only the longer breaks, which cannot be regarded as accidental, have been taken into account.

No mention is made of *Trevena* (Cornwall), by which name the combined borough generally known as *Bossiney* is sometimes called, for, on the only occasion (the first parliament of 1554) on which both Bossiney and Trevena were summoned, no names are returned for the latter. Account has been taken only of regular parliaments, not of councils of merchants and other irregular assemblies which met occasionally in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The unusually large gathering in September, 1337, has been reckoned as a parliament, though it seems doubtful whether the larger half of the boroughs mentioned as having been summoned on that occasion attended a regular parliament or a merely financial council.

G. W. PROTHERO.

XXIV

ENGLAND AND WALES

SHOWING THE PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION ACCORDING TO THE REFORM ACT OF 1832

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SHOWING THE PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION ACCORDING TO THE REFORM ACT OF 1832

THE Act to amend the Representation of the People (2 William IV, c. 45), familiarly known as the 'Reform Bill,' and the complementary Boundary Act (2 & 3 William IV, c. 64), made the following changes in the constituencies of England and Wales. The alterations effected in the franchise by the former measure do not call for notice here.

i. The Counties. The old principle that every county in England should return two knights of the shire to Parliament was so far modified that twenty-five counties were broken up into two *Divisions*, each ranking as a separate constituency with two members. Lincolnshire was distinguished from the others by the fact that its Northern Division was given the name of *Lindsey*, and the Southern Division that of *Kesteven and Holland*. Besides these twenty-five, *Hampshire* was parted into two Divisions, but the *Isle of Wight* was cut off from it and given a single member to itself. The three *Ridings of Yorkshire* were also created into three separate constituencies[1]. In four counties the great enlargement of the boundaries of certain parliamentary boroughs—Shoreham, Cricklade, Aylesbury, and East Retford—exempted considerable districts from the county area of representation; but there was here no violation of the principles on which the electoral system had grown up. In seven other counties, however, an entirely new plan was established. These counties were *Cambridgeshire*, *Hertfordshire*, *Buckinghamshire*, *Oxfordshire*, *Herefordshire*, *Berkshire*, and *Dorset*, which were regarded as too large to remain single constituencies and yet not large enough to be divided. To each of them therefore three members were assigned.

In *Wales*, as previously, the counties returned each but one member; but now *Denbighshire*, *Glamorganshire*, and *Caermarthenshire* were placed upon the footing of English counties, and given two representatives.

The result of these changes was to add sixty-five to the number of the county members.

ii. The Boroughs. The number of boroughs the representation of which was abolished or reduced by the Act of 1832 was eighty-seven. Of these, fifty-five with two members, and one (Higham Ferrers) with one, were altogether disfranchised; Weymouth was united with Melcombe Regis; and thirty boroughs were deprived of one of their members. In place of these, twenty-two boroughs were created with two representatives, and nineteen in England and two in Wales with one each[2]. The following peculiar arrangements require to be stated:

By § 6 of the Act (2 William IV, c. 45), *Penryn* was enlarged so as to include for parliamentary purposes *Falmouth*; and *Sandwich*, to include *Deal* and *Walmer*.

By § 5 *Shoreham* was to comprise the entire *Rape of Bramber*, excepting the borough of *Horsham*; *Cricklade* was to 'include the Hundreds and Divisions of Highworth, Cricklade, Staple, Kingsbridge, and Malmsbury,' excepting the area of the borough of Malmsbury; *Aylesbury*, the three Hundreds of Aylesbury; and *East Retford*, the Hundred of Bassetlaw 'and all places locally situate within the outside boundary or limit of the Hundred of Bassetlaw, or surrounded by such boundary and by any part of the county of Lincoln or the county of York.'

In § 74 it is implied that *Newport* and *Usk* already formed part, for parliamentary purposes, of the borough of *Monmouth*.

In Wales[3] two different systems were adopted for giving the borough franchise to small towns:

a. Certain places were by § 8 to 'have a share in the election of a member to serve in all future Parliaments for the shire-town or borough which is mentioned in conjunction therewith' in a schedule annexed. These grouped boroughs as they were commonly called are as follows:

Beaumaris, Amlwch, Holyhead, Llangefni.
Cardigan, Aberystwith, Lampeter, Adpar.
Caermarthen, Llanelly.
Caernarvon, Pwllheli, Nevin, Conway, Bangor, Criccieth.
Denbigh, Ruthin, Holt, Town of Wrexham.
Flint, Rhyddlan, Overton, Caerwis, Caergwrley, St. Asaph, Holywell, Mold.
Cardiff, Cowbridge, Llantrissent.
Montgomery, Llanidloes, Welsh Pool, Machynlleth, Llanfyllin, Newtown.
Haverfordwest, Narberth, Fishguard.
Pembroke, Tenby, Wiston, Town of Milford.
Radnor, Knighton, Rhayder, Kevinleece, Knucklas, Town of Presteigne.

b. A somewhat different arrangement was made in respect of *Swansea*; for by § 10 this town, Loughor, Neath, Aberavon, and Ken-fig, were declared for the purposes of the Act to be one borough.

In the map the first only of each of these groups of names is inserted.

The Boundary Act specifies a large number of alterations in the limits of boroughs, but they are mostly too small in area to be marked in the map. The only borough areas which are there shown are those of Shoreham, Cricklade, Aylesbury, and East Retford, which, except for the difference of the franchise, were to all intents and purposes county divisions.

The Act, 2 William IV, c. 45, while enumerating every change in the representation, contains no reference to the boroughs whose status was unaffected by its provisions. In preparing the map therefore recourse has been made to the list of members

[1] Yorkshire had had four members since 1821.

[2] The effect of the changes both in county and borough representation summarized above was that England lost eighteen seats; of which five were given to Wales and the remainder to Scotland and Ireland.

[3] The spelling of names in the following summary is that of the Act of Parliament.

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returned to serve in the Parliament of 3 William IV (January 29, 1833), printed in the *Return of Members of Parliament* (*Accounts and Papers*, lxii, part ii. 340 seqq., 1878).

iii. Subsequent Reforms. Although the accompanying map shows only the scheme of representation established by the Act of 1832, it may be convenient to relate briefly the alterations made in it subsequently. The principles of the Act of 1832, so far as the structure of the constituencies was concerned, were substantially maintained by that of 1867 (30 & 31 Vict., c. 102), but they were largely extended. New Divisions were formed in twelve counties. A third member was given to the city of *Manchester* and to the boroughs of *Birmingham*, *Leeds*, and *Liverpool*; a second to *Salford* and *Merthyr Tydfil*; and eleven new boroughs were created. These were *Hackney* (separated from the Tower Hamlets) and *Chelsea*, each with two members; and *Darlington*, the *Hartlepools*, *Stockton*, *Gravesend*, *Burnley*, *Staleybridge*, *Wednesbury*, *Middlesborough*, and *Dewsbury*, each with one. The *University of London* was also to return one member.

To make room for these new seats the Act, supplemented by the Act of 1868 for the amendment of the Representation of the People in Scotland (31 & 32 Vict., c. 48, § 43), disfranchised eleven boroughs in England, and deprived thirty-five, which had returned two, of one of their members.

By the Boundary Act (31 & 32 Vict., c. 46) the plan, which had been begun in 1832, of justifying the preservation of small boroughs by the inclusion within them of considerable tracts of the surrounding country was applied to a large number of constituencies.

Of the Act of 1885 for the Redistribution of Seats at Parliamentary Elections (48 & 49 Vict., c. 23), it will be sufficient here to say that it abandoned the old basis of representation by double-membered constituencies as the normal type. Only twenty-one boroughs and two universities retained two members. The other boroughs and all the counties were made single-membered constituencies. Such of the smaller boroughs as were not disfranchised were left one seat each; the larger ones were divided into three or more distinct constituencies. The counties in like manner were parcelled up into Divisions. Rutland alone was undivided.

XXV

SCOTLAND

XXV

SCOTLAND

THE geography of Scotland, as it was conceived by Ptolemy, is shown in the small map accompanying that of Roman Britain (above, Plate 15). It is evident, as Mr. Henry Bradley has pointed out, that Ptolemy compiled his description of North Britain with the help of a separate map, the correct relation of which to Southern Britain was not indicated.

Early Scotland. A small map on the following plate gives approximately the subdivisions of Celtic Scotland during the time of the *Four Kingdoms*. It is based on the researches of W. F. Skene and E. W. Robertson, compared with the evidence of the Irish chroniclers. In many cases the position of districts and places cannot be fixed with certainty.

The main divisions indicated are:—1. *Pictland, Pictavia,* or *Cruithen-Tuath*, including the seven traditionary provinces of *Cait, Ce, Ciric, Fiv* (or *Fib*), *Fidach, Fodla,* and *Fortrenn*. *Cait* is probably Cathenesia (Caithness), *Fiv*, Fife, and *Fodla*, Atholl (Athfodla). *Ce* and *Ciric* have been identified with the Mearns, or the district east of the Grampians; *Fortrenn* with the district between the Tay and the Forth; and *Fidach*, by E. W. Robertson, with Badenoch, or the district north of Athol, but in this map with the district of Glen Fiddich. 2. The Scots kingdom of *Dalriada*. 3. The British kingdom of *Strathclyde*. 4. The northern portion of the Anglian kingdom of *Bernicia*. 5. The Pictish district of *Galloway* (Gallgaedhel), whose inhabitants are called Niduari by Bede. 6. The debatable land at the meeting of the four kingdoms between the Forth and Clyde, originally the land of the Damnonii of Roman times. Skene divides this territory into three divisions ('Celtic Scotland,' i, pp. 237, 238).

Scotland in the Eleventh Century. This inset map shows the disposition of territory at the time of the consolidation of the kingdom of Scotia under MALCOLM, son of Kenneth. The older Pictavia or Cruithen-Tuath, which had been known as *Alban* or *Albania* in the tenth century, is now called *Scotia*, after the dominant element in the Picto-Scottish population. *Laodonea* or *Lothian*, a portion of the older *Bernicia*, was ceded to Scotland after the battle of Carham in 1018. *Cumbria*, the older *Strathclyde*, formed part of the southern province after the death of Domnall, underking of Cumbria, in the same year. The portions coloured red indicate the districts under Norwegian rule; while those coloured in outline were only under Norwegian influence. *Moray* (Moravia), which had in the previous century been freed from Norwegian rule and attached to the kingdom of Alban, was now part of the kingdom of Scotia. The Scandinavian power lay chiefly along the west coast, and seldom extended far inland.

Scotland, c. 1300.—The kingdom was in the twelfth century divided into the following sheriffdoms:—

1. *Invernys* or *Inverness*, including the counties of *Caithness, Sutherland, Ross* and *Cromarty*, and *Inverness*. The modern sheriffdoms date from 1641, though they were established by statute in 1503. The old Norse earldom of Caithness included Caithness and Sutherland till their separation by ALEXANDER II. The western coast of the territory of the earldom of Ross was known as *Borealis Ergadia*.

2. *Invernairn* (Nairn).

3. *Elgyn*. *Forres* was originally a separate jurisdiction.

4. *Banff*.

5. *Abirdene*, including the districts of *Buchan* (earldom), *Fermartine, Garvyach*, and *Mar*—Cromar, Midmar, Braemar—(earldom).

6. *Kyncardin*, or the district of the *Mernis* (Mearns), north and south of the *Munth*.

7. *Forfare* or *Angus*, corresponding to the earldom of Angus, subdivided into four parts:—(*a*) The Quarter of *Brechyn*, (*b*) the Quarter of *Kerymuir*, (*c*) the Quarter of *Abirbrothok*, and (*d*) the Quarter of *Dunde*.

8. *Perth*, including (*a*) the Quarter of *Athol* (earldom), (*b*) the Quarter of *Stormond*, (*c*) the Quarter *supra Ylef*, (*d*) the Quarter *sub Ylef*, and (*e*) the Quarter of *Stratherne* (an ancient earldom). It contained also an undetermined Quarter called *Quarterium septem schirarum de Perth*, and the districts of *Glenlyon, Meneteth* (an ancient earldom, fiscally separate from Stratherne), and *Oughterarder*.

9. *Fife*, corresponding to an ancient earldom, divided as follows:—(*a*) The Quarter of *Eden*, (*b*) the Quarter of *Carail*, (*c*) the Quarter of *Leven*, (*d*) the Quarter of *Dunfermelyn*, and (*e*) the Quarter of *Innerkethyn*.

10. *Kynros* (Kinross).

11. *Clacmanane* (Clackmannan).

12. *Stryvelyn* (Stirling).

13. *Dumbretan* (Dumbarton), including the ancient earldom of *Levenax* (Lennox).

14. *Ergyl* (Argyle), containing the districts of *Lorn, Ergyl* (the lordships of the houses of Lorn and De Ergadia), *Cowal*, and *Cantyre*.

15. *Loudian* (the Lothians), confined at this period to the boundaries of the modern East, Mid, and West Lothians. *Lynlithcu* and *Hadynton* were constabularies under the sheriffdom of Loudian, which continued to be called the sheriffdom of *Edinburgh principal*.

16. *Berwik*, with the divisions of *Lammermuir, Mers* (earldom of March), and *Lauderdaill*.

SCOTLAND
c. 1300
English Miles
Royal Castles
Other "
Q. Quarter
Longitude West 5 of Greenwich
Early SCOTLAND
Eng. Miles
SCOTLAND in the XI Century
Eng. Miles
Long. West 4 of Greenw.
Caithness (Cathness)
Sutherland
Lewis
Lewethy
Harwyster
Barre
Eigg
Colla
Tiryad
Colonsay
ISLES
NORTH
SOUTH
Ross
Moray
Inverness
Nairn
Elgyn
Banff
Buchan
Aberdeen
Kincardin
Mearns
Forfare
Angus
Perth
Menteith
Lennox
Stryvelyn
Clackmannan
Kinross
Fife
Haddington
Edenburgh
Berwick
Merse
Lanark
Renfrew
Cuningham
Kyle
Carrick
Galloway
Wygton
Dumfreis
Tevidale
Selkirk
Roxburgh
Peebles
Argyle
Lochaber
Glenurchay
Glen Lyon
Strathern
Gartenan
Monteith
Cowal
Kintyre
Knapdale
Jura
Islay
Mull
Skye
Raasay
Rum
Eigg
Barra
Uist
Benbecula
Harris
Lewis
Orkney
Shetland
Pettalands Fiorth
Cathenesia (Cait)
Reachrainn
Rebdins
Ross
Buchain (Fidach)
PICTAVIA OR ERUTHEN-LAND
AIRER DALRIATA
AIRER GAIRTHE (Ahr)
STRATHCLUTA
GALLGAITHEL (Niduari)
Landida Casa (Whithorne)
Lacu Inel
Dun Breatan
Dun Edin
Dun Pelder
Dun Bar
Dun Barchan
Dun Monaid
Dun Ollaigh
Dun Aedan
Dun Mac Sniochan
Dun Mac Uais
Dun Mac Aedan
Dun Mac Nechtan
Dun Mac Gartnait
Dun Mac Gartnaich
Dun Mac Gartnaich
Dun Mac Gartnaich

17. *Rokesburgh* (Roxburgh), including the district of *Teviotdaill.*

18. *Selkirk,* divided into—(*a*) the Ward of *Tweed,* (*b*) the Ward of *Ettrick,* and (*c*) the Ward of *Yarrow* ; and including, towards the northern boundary, part of the district of *The Forest* (Ettrick Forest).

19. *Peblis* (Peebles).

20. *Lanark,* the district of Clydesdale, subdivided into—(*a*) the *Nether Waird,* (*b*) the *Middil Waird,* and (*c*) the *Over Waird.* It included the district of *Renfrew.*

21. *Are* (Ayr), containing three bailiaries of *Cuninghame, Kyll,* and *Carrick* (earldom).

22. *Dunfreis* or *Dromfreis,* including the modern counties of *Dumfries* and *Kirkcudbright.*

23. *Wygton.* The ancient district of *Galloway* lay partly in *Dunfreis* and partly in *Wygton,* the river Cree dividing it into two portions, known as *G. above Cree* and *G. below Cree.*

Orkney and *Shetland* were not joined to the Scottish Crown till the reign of JAMES III.

An endeavour has been made to indicate the position of the great forests mentioned in the records. The names are printed in italics. The royal castles and the leading baronial castles are distinguished (see the note under the title of the map). No indication is given of cathedrals, abbeys, churches, &c., as they will be found in the ecclesiastical map of Scotland.

The place-names have been verified by reference to the 'Exchequer Rolls,' 'The Register of the Great Seal,' the 1292 *Description* in 'The Picts and Scots' (Scottish Record Series), and 'Documents Illustrative of the History of Scotland' (ed. Stevenson). Many hints have been obtained from Robertson's 'Index to the Records' (1798), Tytler's 'History of Scotland,' vol. ii, and Cosmo Innes's valuable historical works—in especial, his 'Scotland in the Middle Ages.' The topographical preface to the last contains much valuable information and several maps, which have been the basis of all later historical maps of Scotland.

G. GREGORY SMITH.

XXVI

THE ECCLESIASTICAL ORGANIZATION OF SCOTLAND IN THE MIDDLE AGES

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THE ECCLESIASTICAL ORGANIZATION OF SCOTLAND IN THE MIDDLE AGES

THE distribution of the monasteries of the Columban Church from the first foundation in Iona till the expulsion of the Columban monks from the territories of the Picts early in the eighth century is shown in the inset map. The names of the monasteries are printed in italics, those of Iona and the dependent foundations of Lismore and Cinngaradh (Kingarth) being distinguished by roman type, to indicate their episcopal character. The numbers affixed to the names show the ascertained date of foundation.

See the Irish Chroniclers; Adamnan (ed. Reeves); and Skene, especially 'Celtic Scotland,' vol. ii.

The large map shows the ecclesiastical divisions in the Middle Ages, representing most nearly the period immediately preceding the Reformation, when we have the greatest subdivision of ecclesiastical territory and the largest number of church foundations. The map does not profess to be an accurate representation at any fixed date; dioceses (such as Brechyn) as well as parishes often varied in area, and foundations were often changed in constitution.

The kingdom was divided into the following thirteen dioceses:—

I. The archbishopric of SANCT ANDROWIS (St. Andrews). The bishopric, which had grown out of the older foundations of the Columban and Culdee Churches, embraced in the reign of Malcolm IV a wide territory, practically including the eastern half of the kingdom from Berwick to Aberdeen. During the tenure of Patrick Graham, thirty-seventh bishop (1466–1478), it was erected into an archbishopric with metropolitan powers. *Seat*—Sanct Androwis.

The archbishopric was subdivided as follows:—

(*a*) The archdeaconry of *Sanct Androwis*, north of the Forth, including these rural deaneries:—
(*i*) Fife, (ii) Fothryf, (iii) Gowrie, (iv) Angus, and (v) Mernis.

(*b*) The archdeaconry of *Loudian* (Lothian), south of the Forth, including these rural deaneries:—
(i) Loudian, (ii) Lynlithcu, (iii) Mers.

The sees suffragan to Sanct Androwis were:—

1. *Dunkeld*, originally an extensive diocese extending to the west as far as Iona (which island it retained for a time after the erection of the bishopric of Argyll), latterly consisted of the rural deaneries of (i) Athol and Drumalban, corresponding to the northern portion of Perthshire; (ii) Angus; (iii) Fife, Fothryf, and Stratherne (including the island of Inch Colme); (iv) portions of Loudian (*in partibus australibus*). *Seat*—Dunkeld.

2. *Abirdene*, founded by David I, consisted originally of three deaneries, Mar, Buchan, and Gariauch, but afterwards of five, (i) Abirdene, (ii) Mar, (iii) Gariauch, (iv) Buchan, and (v) Buyn. *Seat*—Abirdene.

3. *Moray* was subdivided into the following deaneries: (i) Elgyn, (ii) Inverness, (iii) Strathspey, and (iv) Strathbolgy. *Seats*, successively—Birnay, Kinedar, Spynie, and Elgyn (1224).

4. *Brechyn*, a small bishopric erected by David I. The outline was very irregular and varied from time to time, some of the parishes appearing at times under the direct jurisdiction of the Archbishop of St. Andrews and the Bishops of Dunkeld and Aberdeen. *Seat*—Brechyn.

5. *Dunblane* (or *Stratherne*), a foundation of Gilbert, Earl of Strathearn, in the thirteenth century. *Seat*—Dunblane.

6. *Ros* (or Rosmarkyn), founded by David I. *Seat*—Rosmarkyn (Rosemarkie).

7. *Catnes* (Caithness), including the area of Sutherland and Caithness. *Seat*—Durnach.

8. *Orkney*, a later bishopric acquired from the archbishopric of Trondhjem, in Norway, on the acquisition of territorial rights by James III in 1468. *Seat*—Kirkwall.

II. The archbishopric of GLASGU. Archiepiscopal dignity was granted to Bishop Robert Blacader (1484–1508) in virtue of an Act of Parliament of January, 1489. *Seat*—Glasgu.

It was subdivided as follows:—

(*a*) The archdeaconry of *Glasgu* proper, including the rural deaneries of (i) Lennox, (ii) Rutherglen, (iii) Lanark, (iv) Kyle and Cunninghame, and (v) Carric.

(*b*) The archdeaconry of *Teviotdaill*, including the rural deaneries of (i) Peblis, (ii) Annandaill, and (iii) Nithisdaill.

The suffragan sees were:—

1. *Galloway*, subdivided into the deaneries of (i) Desnes, (ii) Farnes, and (iii) Rinnes. *Seat*—Quhithern (Whithorn).

2. *Argyll* (or *Lismoir*), a portion of the older see of Dunkeld (see above), with four deaneries: (i) Morvern, (ii) Lorn, (iii) Glassary, and (iv) Cantire. *Seat*—Lismoir.

3. *The Isles*, or *Sudreys* (Suðreyjar), in contradistinction to the North Isles (Norðreyjar), was constituted in 1154

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a suffragan diocese to the new metropolitan see of Trondhjem. It included the Hebrides, the South Isles, and Man. In 1226 Bishop Simon and the Abbot of Iona were consecrated at Bergen by the Archbishop of Nidaros. When these islands were surrendered to the Scottish Crown in 1266, the ecclesiastical rights of Trondhjem were reserved. This continued till the middle of the fifteenth century, despite the acquisition of Man by England after the battle of Halidon Hill. Thus, e.g., we find Pope Clement VI announcing to John Macdonald, Lord of the Isles, on April 27, 1349, the confirmation of the election of William Russel, the Manx Abbot of Rushen, to the see of the Sudreys. It is difficult to trace exactly the history of the see during this time, on account of the varying political subdivision with attendant national rivalries, further complicated by allegiance to a foreign prelate. The titles of the Bishops, too, vary much (*Ep. Sodorensis, Ep. Ædudarum, Ep. Manniae et Insularum*, &c.). In 1458 Pope Calixtus III transferred Man to the jurisdiction of York, and about the same time (perhaps in 1472, when the see of St. Andrews was made metropolitan) the Scottish see was made independent of Trondhjem, and ultimately made suffragan to Glasgow. Henceforth the Bishop is called the 'Bischop of the Iles' (e. g. 1502), and in Latin style *Sodorensis* (e. g. 1524). In the reign of James IV the abbacy of Icolumkill (Iona) was annexed to the see *in commendam*, and in 1612 it and the priory of Ardchattan, for some time also held *in commendam*, were annexed *ad perpetuam remanentiam*. The latter was transferred to the see of Argyll in 1617.

For references see the 'English Historical Review,' vol. v (1890), p. 101, where the later combined title '*Sodor and Man*' is explained; and G. Gregory Smith's 'Book of Islay' (Edinburgh, 1895), pp. 150, 441, &c.

In the map the dioceses are outlined in different colours; the archdeaconries are marked off, where the division is on land, by a dotted line washed by the colour of the diocese and lettered thus, GLASGU; the deaneries are divided by fine dotted lines, coloured, lettered thus, Mers. When more than one foundation existed in the same burgh or place, only one, generally the larger or more important, has been given, as there were practical difficulties in the way of enumerating all the regular communities in places such as Edinburgh, Glasgow, Perth, &c. This consideration caused the abandonment of an original scheme to indicate the distribution of the different religious orders in Scotland.

See the Cartularies and diocesan Registers; 'Origines Parochiales Scotiae'; 'The Statistical Account of Scotland' (Old and New), and various monographs on local and parochial history; Keith's 'Historical Catalogue of the Scottish Bishops,' with Spottiswoode's 'Account of the Religious Houses' (ed. Russell, 1824); Robertson's 'Index'; Cosmo Innes's historical works, especially 'Scotland in the Middle Ages' (with ecclesiastical map); and Joseph Robertson's 'Scottish Abbeys and Cathedrals,' &c.

G. GREGORY SMITH.

XXVII

SCOTLAND, c. 1600

XXVII

SCOTLAND, c. 1600

THIS map shows the topography of Scotland during the period extending from the later years of MARY'S reign to the visit of JAMES VI in 1617.

The names have been derived in the first instance from the official records of the time, in especial from the *Register of the Privy Council of Scotland*, the *Calendars of State Papers*, and the *Acts of Parliament*. The more important names given in contemporary histories and memoirs have been included; and the map has been collated with the well-known series by Timothy Pont, which were published in Blaeu's Atlas at Amsterdam in 1660. The original maps, drawn about 1608, and now preserved in the Advocates' Library, have been of use in explaining a few errors in the carefully engraved Dutch plates. The additional manuscript maps by John Adair (1680) have also been consulted. Sir James Balfour's *Collection of the Severall Shires, originall: with considerable additions by Robert Sibbald, under his hand* (Adv. Libr. MSS. 33. 2. 27), has been helpful in the determination of the political divisions.

The shire divisions call for no remark, after what has been said regarding the earlier maps. In many official documents and in historical accounts the territorial or district names are used by preference: these have been indicated in smaller capitals.

The southern district called the MIDDLE SHIRES—more correctly the Scottish portion of the Middle Shires—was the creation of James VI after his accession to the English throne. It included the older border area of i. *The East March* (Berwickshire); ii. *The Middle March* (Selkirkshire, Peeblesshire, and Roxburghshire, the last including the lordship of Liddesdale); and iii. *The West March* (Eskdale, Ewesdale, Wauchopdale, Annandale, Nithsdale, and Galloway, beneath and above Cree Water). This district is named in the Articles of the Conjunct Commission for the Middle Shires, 1618 (*Register of the Privy Council*, xi. 346), as constituting, with 'Northumberland, Westmoreland, and Cumberland, the schyres of or parroches of Norhame, the Holie Yland, and Bedlingtoun, parsill of the countrie pallintyne of Durhame,' the Middle Shires of Great Britain. The records show how peremptory James was in the use of this title for 'the lait Merches or Borderis' in token of 'the happie unioun of the kingdomes of Scotland and England . . . under ane imperiall crowne'; but the term fell into desuetude after his death.

G. GREGORY SMITH.

SCOTLAND
c. 1600
English Miles
10 5 0 10 20
Burghs shown thus ... Lanerk
Castles " " ... Bothwell
The Shire of ORKNAY
On reduced Scale
Long. W. 2 of Green. 1
ENVIRONS OF EDINBURGH
on enlarged Scale
30' Long. West of Green. 3
Longitude West 5 of Greenwich
ZETLAND
ORKNAY
CAITHNES
SUTHERLAND
STRATHNAVER
ROSS
INNERNESS
ELGYN & FORRES
BANFF
BOYNE
BUCHAN
MARTINE
GARIOCH
BRAID ABERDEEN
KINCARDIN (KINCARNE) OR MERNIS
FORFARE OR ANGUS
PERTH
STRATHEARN
STEWARTRY OF MENTEITH
CLACKMANNAN
STRIVILING
FIFE
LINLITHGOW
EDENBURGH
HADINGTOUN
CONSTABULARY
BERWICK OR MERS
THE MERS
LANERK
PEBLIS
TWEDDAILL
ROXBURGH
TEVIOTDALE
LIDDISDALE
EUSDALE
EUSDALE
REEDSDALE
EUSDALE
HEXHAMSHIRE
RENFREW
CUNNINGHAM
KYLE
CARRICK
DRUMFRES
STEWARTRY
KIRKCUDBRICHT
GALLOWAY
REGALITY OF GLENLUCE
WIGTOUN
ARGYLL
LORN
ARDNAMURCHAN
ATHOLE
BRAID ALBAIN
LOCHABYR
BADENOCH
STRATHSPEY
STRATHDOWN
STRATHDEE
BRAID MARR
STRATHALMOND
STRATHBOGIE
STRATHGARRY
STRATHTAY
STRATHEARN
BALQUHIDDER
GLENLYON
GLENURQUHAY
KINTAIL
GLENELG
GLENMORISTON
GLENKENS
GLENTROOL
GLENAPPIN
GLENCOUL
GLENSHIRA
GLENORCHY
GLENDOCHART
GLENFALLOCH
GLENFRUIN
GLENGYLE
GLENGARNOCK
GLENCAIRN
GLENKEN
GLENTROOL
GLENAPPIN
GLENCOUL
GLENSHIRA
GLENORCHY
GLENDOCHART
GLENFALLOCH
GLENFRUIN
GLENGYLE
GLENGARNOCK
GLENCAIRN
GLENKEN
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XXVIII

SCOTLAND,

SHOWING THE PRINCIPAL CLANS AND FAMILIES,

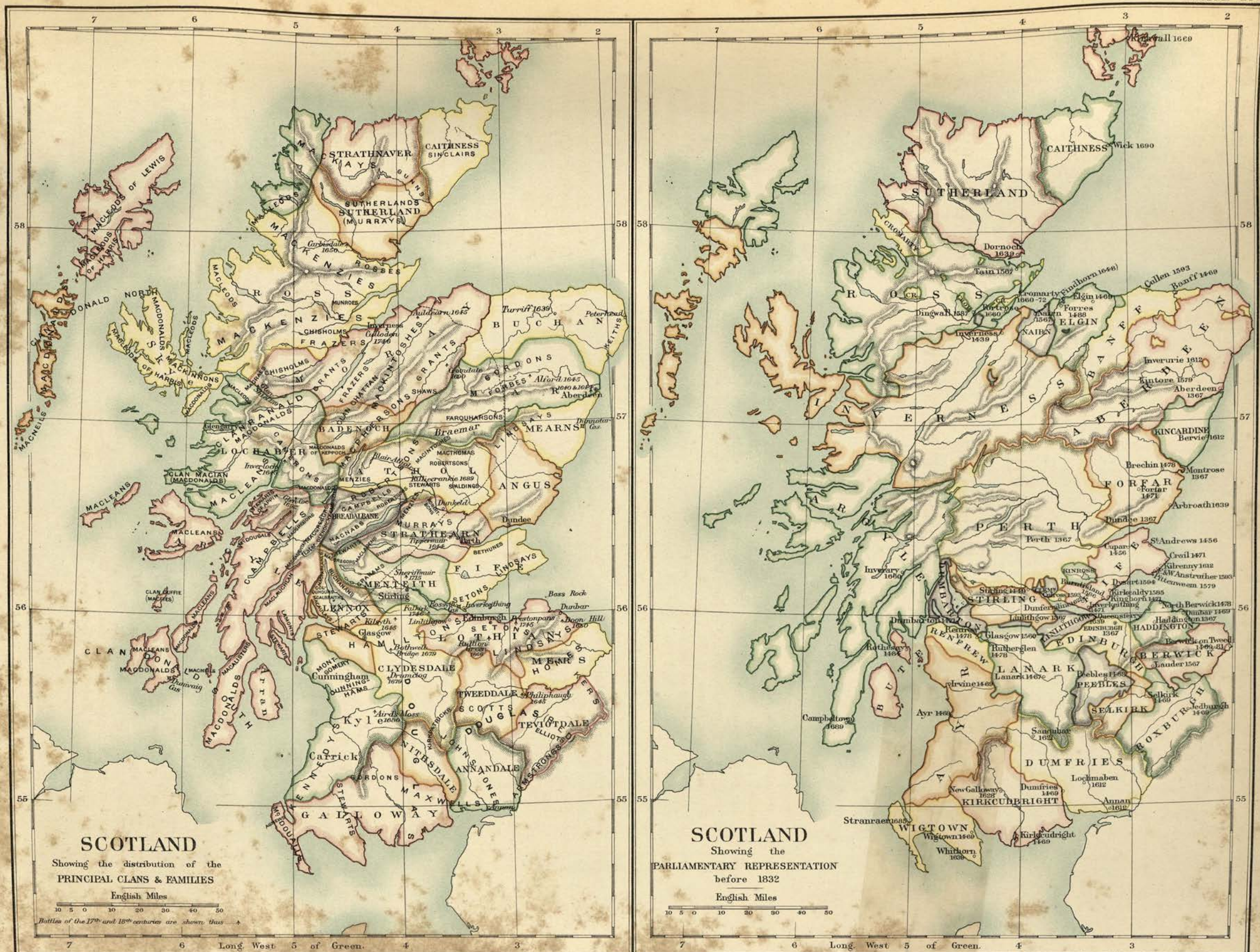
AND ALSO THE PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION DOWN TO 1832

XXVIII

SCOTLAND, SHOWING THE PRINCIPAL CLANS AND FAMILIES AND ALSO THE PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION DOWN TO 1832

I. **The Parliamentary Representation.** Before 1326, there is no evidence of the presence, in the Great Council, of any but tenants-in-chief. The Council is first termed a 'Parliament' in 1292; but it is not till 1326 that we find anything of the nature of representation. Before that date, the burgesses communicated with the king, either directly, or through the courts of the Four Burghs of the south and the Hanse Burghs of the north. Every tenant-in-chief, ecclesiastical or lay, had the right of attendance in the king's Council; but, practically, only the larger freeholders were accustomed to be present. In 1326, burgesses attended at the Parliament of Cambuskenneth, which settled the pecuniary relationships of king and people, and re-imbursed King ROBERT for the expenses of the War of Independence. During the next sixty years we find them present when the expenditure of money was part of the business of the Estates (e.g. in 1356–7 and 1363), but not at other times. From the end of the reign of DAVID II (c. 1370), they seem to have been generally present. We have only occasional lists of representatives, the earliest of these being for the Parliament held at Edinburgh in November, 1469; but from 1367 onwards we possess, as a rule, the names of those burghs whose representatives were elected to one or other of those Committees which gradually superseded the Estates. The map shows every burgh which is known to have been represented, the date placed after each name being that of the earliest representation recorded in the Acts of the Parliament. From the insufficiency of our information, this cannot be regarded as decisive, and the publication of Burgh Records may gradually modify the dates. It is important to note that at a Council held at Edinburgh in September, 1357, to arrange about the ransom of King DAVID II, the following burghs were represented:—Aberdeen, Crail, Cupar, Dumbarton, Dumfries, Dundee, Edinburgh, Haddington, Inverkeithing, Lanark, Linlithgow, Montrose, Perth, Peebles, Rutherglen, Stirling, and St. Andrews; for it is probable that all these were represented at the Parliament of 1367, although only seven of them found a place among the 'persons of each Estate who were chosen to hold the Parliament,' while the others were sent home to attend to the harvest. Down to 1619, the number of members for each burgh was two; but, in that year, the Convention of Royal Burghs ordered that every burgh, except Edinburgh, should send only one representative. The resolution does not appear to have received any Parliamentary sanction: but it was carried into effect. The theory of the right of burgesses to a place in Parliament was not at once extended to the quasi-Parliamentary meetings known as Conventions, which could impose taxes, and possessed all Parliamentary powers, except the passing of general laws. In 1503, an Act was passed prescribing their attendance, but it does not seem to have been effective, and it was re-affirmed in 1563. But between 1566, the first date of their recorded presence, and the end of the sixteenth century, burgesses were present at only half of the Conventions held.

The smaller barons had an undoubted right to be present in Parliament, as tenants-in-chief; but from various causes they were disinclined to use their powers. King JAMES I, in 1425, passed an Act insisting upon the personal attendance of all freeholders; but, two years later, this was modified in the case of the small barons, by permission to choose, as representatives, 'two or more wise men after the largeness of the shiredome'; Clackmannan and Kinross to send only one representative each. This Act was never operative. In 1457 and in 1503, Acts were passed to relieve small freeholders from the penalties of non-attendance, and the phraseology implies that the legislation of 1427 had been altogether forgotten. The result was the complete absence of the smaller barons from Parliament. In 1560, when a great question, in which they were interested, came to be decided, the old right was so far doubtful that the smaller barons had to assert it by way of petition. It was admitted, and in 1567 an Act was passed ordering representatives of the smaller barons to be elected for each shire, as was prescribed by the legislation of 1427. This Act also was inoperative, and it was not till 1585 that an effective Act (re-affirmed in 1587) was passed, ordering the election for each shire of 'two wise men being the king's freeholders, resident indwellers of the shire, of good rent,' to be chosen by 'all freeholders of the king under the degree of prelates and lords of Parliament' who had 'forty shillings land in free tenandry of the king, and their actual residence and dwelling in the same shire.' It is not clear how far the arrangement came into force till 1612, for the names of small barons are frequently given without any indication as to whether they


SCOTLAND
Showing the distribution of the
PRINCIPAL CLANS & FAMILIES
English Miles
10 5 0 10 20 30 40 50
Battles of the 17th and 18th centuries are shewn thus
Long. West 5 of Green.
SCOTLAND
Showing the
PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION
before 1832
English Miles
10 5 0 10 20 30 40 50
Long. West 5 of Green.

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sat as Privy Councillors or were elected for shires. (Down to the reformation of the Privy Council in 1598, its numbers were very large). Nor can we be satisfied as to completeness, for often only the names of the committees are given. The following table gives in the second column the exact date for each shire. When a date occurs in the first column, it is intended to signify that a baron from that shire was present in the year given, though we do not know in what capacity.

Banff	1593	Linlithgow	1605
Aberdeen	1593	Ayr	1605
Perth	1593. 1600	Roxburgh	1605
Argyle	1593. 1628	Stirling	1607
Dumbarton	1593	Selkirk	1607
Fife	1593	Moray	1612
Berwick	.1593. 1612	Kirkcudbright	1612
Haddington	1593	Caithness	1617
Lanark	1593	Ross	1617
Renfrew	1593	Inverness	1617
Wigtown	.1593. 1617	Nairn	1617
Dumfries	1593	Bute	1617
Peebles	.1593. 1612	Clackmannan	1617
Forfar	.1594. 1600	Orkney and Shetland	1617
Edinburgh	.1594. 1605	Sutherland	1633
Cromarty	1600	Kinross	1681
Kincardine	1600		

Caithness and Ross were, at first, included under Inverness. The sheriffdoms had been separated by an Act of 1503, which did not, however, become effective till 1641 in the case of Caithness, and 1649 in the case of Ross. In 1690, two additional members each were given to the counties of Edinburgh, Haddington, Berwick, Roxburgh, Lanark, Dumfries, Ayr, Perth, Aberdeen, Fife, Forfar; and Kirkcudbright, Stirling, Argyle, and Renfrew received one additional representative each.

Under the Commonwealth, Scotland received thirty members in the English Parliament, twenty for the shires, and ten for the burghs. Every *shire* had one member, except the following, each group of which returned a single member:—

Sutherland, Ross, and Cromarty;
Forfar and Kincardine;
Fife and Kinross;
Linlithgow, Stirling, and Clackmannan;
Dumbarton, Argyle, and Bute;
Ayr and Renfrew;
Selkirk and Peebles;
Orkney, Shetland, and Caithness;
Elgin and Nairn.

Of the ten *burgh* representatives, Edinburgh had two, and each of the following groups elected one:—

Dornoch, Tain, Inverness, Dingwall, Nairn, Elgin, and Forres;
Banff, Cullen, and Aberdeen;
Forfar, Dundee, Arbroath, Montrose, and Brechin;
Linlithgow, Queensferry, Perth, Culross, and Stirling;
St. Andrews, Dysart, Kirkcaldy, Cupar, Anstruther (East and West), Pittenweem, Crail, Dunfermline, Kinghorn, Inverkeithing, Kilrenny, and Burntisland;
Lanark, Glasgow, Rutherglen, Rothesay, Renfrew, Ayr, Irvine, and Dumbarton;
Dumfries, Sanquhar, Lochmaben, Annan, Wigtown, Kirkcudbright, Whithorn, and Galloway;
Peebles, Selkirk, Jedburgh, Lauder, North Berwick, Dunbar, and Haddington.

Of the forty-five members assigned to Scotland by the Act of Union of 1707, thirty represented the shires. Each *shire* elected one representative, with the exception of six, in the case of which an unusual device was adopted. Bute and Caithness, Clackmannan and Kinross, and Nairn and Cromarty formed three groups. In each group, the first-mentioned shire made the election for one Parliament, and the second for the next, and so on, alternately. Thus, in the Parliament of 1708, Bute, Clackmannan, and Nairn were represented; and in the Parliament of 1710, Caithness, Kinross, and Cromarty. The *burghs* were divided into the following fifteen groups, each of which returned one member:—

Aberdeen, Montrose, Brechin, Arbroath, and Inverbervie;
Ayr, Irvine, Rothesay, Inverary, and Campbelton;
Dumfries, Kirkcudbright, Annan, Lochmaben, and Sanquhar;
Edinburgh;
Elgin, Banff, Cullen, Kintore, and Inverury;
Dysart, Kirkcaldy, Burntisland, and Kinghorn;
Anstruther (East and West), Crail, Kilrenny, and Pittenweem;
Haddington, Jedburgh, Dunbar, North Berwick, and Lauder;
Inverness, Nairn, Forres, and Fortrose;
Glasgow, Dumbarton, Renfrew, and Rutherglen;
Linlithgow, Lanark, Selkirk, and Peebles;
Perth, Dundee, St. Andrews, Cupar, and Forfar;
Tain, Dingwall, Dornoch, Wick, and Kirkwall;
Stirling, Inverkeithing, Dunfermline, Culross, and Queensferry;
Wigtown, Whithorn, New Galloway, and Stranraer.

The actual election was held at each burgh in rotation, the others sending representatives.

When a date is placed after the name of a burgh, it is to be inferred that representation was thereafter continuous (unless during the anomalous period of the Commonwealth), although the records do not exist for all cases. Only three burghs lost their representation before 1832: Berwick, which was represented only in the course of the twenty-one years in which it was held from England (1461–1482); Cromarty, which ceased to be a Royal Burgh in 1672, and was expunged from the rolls of Parliament; and Findhorn, which was represented only in 1648, and is accordingly placed in parentheses.

II. **Clans and Families.** This map requires no particular explanation; but it may be stated that, with regard to the families south of the Highland line, the map represents no particular date. It seemed more appropriate to insert the name of the family which was really characteristic of the district. Thus, for example, the name of Douglas will be found along with those of families that rose on the ruins of the great House. The map is not intended as a guide to land-tenure, and the name of the lord of the manor is not inserted where it would indicate merely territorial possession and not the existence of a family, analogous to a clan in the Highlands. Opportunity has been taken to mark the sites of the principal battles in modern Scottish history, for which no place is provided in other maps.

I have to express indebtedness to Mr. G. Gregory Smith, of the University of Edinburgh, to whom I owe the arrangement of the clans; and to Mr. S. A. Gillon, Cathlaw, Bathgate, who has given me the benefit of his knowledge of the arrangement of the southern families.

ROBERT S. RAIT.

XXIX

EARLY IRELAND

XXIX

EARLY IRELAND

ON the large map are shown the names and positions of the tribal territories of Ireland as they stood immediately prior to the Anglo-Norman occupation in the last quarter of the twelfth century, together with those of the more important civil and ecclesiastical centres. The Irish Pentarchy, as it has been called, is marked by distinctive colours, and within each division the territories of septs or sub-tribes, so far as they have been identified, are indicated and grouped together. The lands of the several septs, indeed, appear very frequently to have coincided roughly with the later baronial divisions; but as exceptions were numerous, and as exact boundaries cannot be laid down with any certainty, it seemed better in general to indicate their relative positions by the positions of the names rather than to aim at a delusive appearance of greater accuracy.

The distribution and grouping of the Irish tribes and septs cannot be properly understood without some knowledge of the traditionary pedigrees and genealogies of the principal Irish families. These pedigrees, locally preserved by hereditary poets, are authentic up to a comparatively remote period, and even when they are carried into the region of legend and myth they probably indicate ethnic distinctions, and at any rate represent the manner in which the various septs believed themselves to be related. Thus while we cannot accept literally the statement of the Bardic writers that nearly all the Irish septs were descended from either Eber or Erimon, the two sons of Mile, we may, with Professor Rhŷs, see in this story an early recognition of the two broadly distinguished races which peopled ancient Ireland. Eber or Emer (pronounced Eever), with whom Ir, though differentiated in the legend, may be phonologically equated, represents the primitive Ivernian or pre-Aryan aboriginal inhabitant (the *Ἰουέρνιος* of Ptolemy), while Erimon (=the ploughman) represents the Aryan farmer who introduced agriculture. On the map, however, only names which were used as territorial names have been marked, but it must be observed that in the large majority of cases the names of the tribes and subordinate septs were used to designate the territories occupied by such tribes and septs. Hereditary family names or surnames, which began to come into use towards the close of the eleventh century, differed of course from tribe names and have not been indicated on this map, but in the remarks which follow some of the names of the ruling families of the twelfth century will be mentioned.

In the north ULADH, in the earlier and larger use of the name, coincided with modern *Ulster*, with the addition of *Louth*, but without *Cavan*. It is said to have been originally inhabited by the descendants of Ir son of Mile, whose kings lived at Eamhain Macha, now Navan-Fort, near Armagh. They were known as the Clanna Rudraige (Rury) and may be regarded as of Ivernian descent. In 331 A.D., however, the Clanna Rury were driven into the east of Ulster by the Oirghialla under the three Collas of the race of Erimon, and henceforth the name Uladh was generally confined to the district east of Glen Righ, Loch Neagh, and the Lower Bann. To avoid the ambiguity in the term Uladh, Latin writers generally called the circumscribed Uladh, Ulidia, and the larger Uladh, Ultonia. Modern ethnologists see in this displacement the encroachment of the Goidelic Celts on the primitive Ivernians. The circumscribed Uladh was divided into Dal Riada and Dal Araidhe. The inhabitants of the former are called by Latin writers Scotti, a name which was applied more generally to peoples speaking the branch of the Celtic tongue distinguished as Goidelic, while the inhabitants of Dal Araidhe are spoken of as largely consisting of Cruithnigh, the Irish equivalent of Picts. According to Professor Rhŷs, however, the two peoples were probably of common descent, though the former in language and in customs had become Goidelicized. As early as the fourth century the Dalriad Scots invaded the Roman province of Britain and at a later period settled in Airer Gaethel (Argyle), and from them ultimately sprang the line of Scottish kings. From about the fifth century the Oirghialla were confined to the present counties of Louth, Armagh, and Monaghan, to which Fermanagh was afterwards added, while the whole north-west of Ulster was occupied by the Cinel Eoghain (Owen) and Cinel Chonaill (Connell). These two great tribes traced their descent from Niall of the Nine Hostages, and were collectively known as the Northern Ui Neill. In the twelfth century the ruling families of Ulster were the MacLoughlins and the O'Neills of the Cinel Owen, the O'Muldorys and O'Canannans of the Cinel Connell, the MacDunlevys of Uladh, and the O'Carrolls of Oirghialla. These four districts were generally independent of each other.

MIDHE or *Meath* comprised, besides the present counties of *East* and *West Meath*, the northern half of *Dublin*, the greater part of *Longford*, and a considerable portion of *King's County*. It was traditionally supposed to have been formed out of the other four provinces as a special demesne of the Ard-righ ruling from Tara (Teamhair). It is probable, as Professor Rhŷs suggests, that it was the first part of Ireland occupied by the immigrant Goidelic tribes, and that from it they advanced north and south. In the twelfth century the O'Melaghlins were kings of Meath, when not deposed from outside, and it was mainly inhabited by the Southern Ui Neill.

CONNACHT or *Connaught* comprised in addition to the modern province the present *County Cavan*, included in *Breffny*. Its principal inhabitants were believed to be

IRELAND
(ÉIRE)
IN THE XIITH CENTURY
prior to the
ANGLO-NORMAN OCCUPATION

English Miles
10 5 0 10 20 30

Longitude West 8 of Greenwich.

HIBERNIA
(IRLANDE)
after the
ANGLO-NORMAN OCCUPATION

English Miles
30 20 10 0 10 20 30 40
Castles
Walled Towns (Boroughs)

IRELAND
at the beginning of the
XIV. CENTURY

English Miles
30 20 10 0 10 20 30 40
Principal Castles
Walled Towns

Long West 8 of Greenwich

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descended from two brothers of Niall Mor, namely Brian and Fiachra. At the time of the English invasion Roderic O'Conor the king of Connaught was also recognized as Ard-righ of Ireland. The connexion of the Ui Briuin and the Ui Fiachrach with the Ui Neill will best be seen from the following table:—

EOCHY MOYVONE, of the race of Erimon, King of Ireland, in the fourth century.

- BRIAN, ancestor of the Ui Briuin
  - The O'Conors of Connaught, head of Siol Muireadhaigh.
  - The O'Rourkes and O'Reillys of Breffny.
- FIACHRA, ancestor of the Ui Fiachrach
  - The O'Dowds of Tir Fhiachrach on the Muaidh (Moy).
  - The O'Shaughnessys of Tir Fhiachrach Aidhne.
- NIALL
  - Eoghan, ancestor of the Cinel Eoghain.
  - Conall Gulban, ancestor of the Cinel Chonaill.
  - Laoghaire, ancestor of the Ui Laoghaire.
  - Conall Criomthainn, ancestor of the Clann Colmain (or O'Melaghlins).
  - Fiach, ancestor of the Molloys of Feara Ceall, and of the Mageoghegans of Cinel Fhiachrach.
  - Maine, ancestor of the people of Teathbha.

MUMHA or *Munster* comprised besides the present province a portion of King's County included in Eile. In the twelfth century it may be regarded as divided into Tuath Mhumha or Thomond and Deas Mhumha or Desmond, though the eastern districts, Ormond and the Decies, are sometimes treated as co-ordinate divisions. The principal families traced their descent from the three sons of Oilioll Olum of the race of Eber, king of Munster in the second century. These three sons were Eoghan, ancestor of the Eoghanachts or Eugenians of Desmond, viz. the MacCarthys, O'Donoghues, O'Sullivans, O'Keefes, O'Callaghans, &c.; Cormac Cas, ancestor of the Dal g-Cais or Dalcassians of Thomond, viz. the O'Briens, Macnamaras, O'Gradys, O'Quins, O'Deas, &c.; and Cian, ancestor of the Ciannachts, who were more scattered, but of whom the chief family was that of the O'Carrolls of Eile.

Finally LAIGHIN comprised the present province of *Leinster* less Midhe as above defined, the County Louth, and part of King's County, included respectively in Oirghialla and Eile as already mentioned. The principal families traced their descent from Cahir More of the race of Erimon, king of Leinster in the second century. From Rossa Failghe, his eldest son, were descended the O'Conors Faly of Ui Failghe (Offaly), the O'Dempseys of Clann Maoilughra (Clanmalier), and the O'Dunns of Ui Riagain (Iregan). From other sons sprang the McMurroughs, kings of Leinster, the O'Tooles of Ui Muireadaigh (Omurethy), and the O'Ryans of Ui Drona (Idrone). The MacGillapatricks of Osraighe (Ossory) also claimed descent from Erimon, while the septs of Laoighis (Leix), of whom the O'Mores were the ruling family, were believed to be of the race of Ir, and their eponymous ancestor was a grandson of the Red Branch hero Conall Cearnach. At the landing of the English the walled towns of Dublin, Waterford, and Wexford, were held by the Ostmen or Danes.

With the exception of the maps of portions of Connaught contained in the publications of the Irish Archaeological Society, no modern maps have attempted with any particularity to cover the same ground. Great assistance has, however, been derived from the notes of the late Dr. John O'Donovan, contained in his editions of the 'Topographical Poems' of O'Dubhagain and O'Huidhrin, the 'Book of Rights,' the 'Annals of the Four Masters,' and other works; while some scattered identifications of other topographical writers, when they seemed well founded, have been adopted. The later and better known forms of the Irish names have been, as a rule, employed; but to avoid the inconvenient crowding that would follow the full introduction of the *h*s, or the awkwardness of points over Roman letters, it was found necessary, in many cases, to omit the aspiration marks. An approximation to the earlier forms of the names has in general resulted.

The first of the two small maps is intended to illustrate the 'Topographica Hibernica' and the 'Expugnatio Hibernica' of Giraldus Cambrensis published in the Rolls Series, and the old French Poem relating to the Anglo-Norman Invasion of Ireland (Carew MS. 596, Lambeth Palace Library), published by the present writer under the title of 'The Song of Dermot and the Earl' (Oxford, 1892). In addition to the place names mentioned in these works the names of the Irish Chiefs and Anglo-Norman tenants *in capite* are printed in italic capitals, while the names of the subordinate grantees are printed in small italics.

The second small map gives the names of the principal English landowners and of the chief ruling Irish families at the commencement of the fourteenth century. The period immediately prior to Bruce's invasion in 1315–8, indicates the high-water mark of English power in Ireland prior to late Tudor times. The general confusion caused by the invasion of the Bruces led to the resumption of much territory by the Irish septs, and to the hibernicizing of many of the English settlers who remained, a tendency which continued until the close of Henry VII's reign, when the English Pale consisted only of parts of the four counties of Louth, Meath, Dublin, and Kildare.

At the period represented Ireland was divided for administrative purposes into the following counties:—*Dublin*, *Uriel* or *Louth*, *Kildare*, *Waterford*, *Tipperary*, *Cork*, *Limerick*, *Kerry*, *Connaught*, and *Roscommon*, together with the liberties of *Ulster*, *Meath*, *Wexford*, *Carlow*, and *Kilkenny* (see 'De Concilio Hibernie' circa 1295 A. D., printed from the Black Book of Christ Church in the Ir. Arch. Miscellany, p.15).

Richard de Burgh was earl of Ulster and lord of Connaught. The liberty of Meath was held in moieties by Theobald de Verdun and Roger de Mortimer, representing through co-heiresses the de Lacies; while the liberties of Wexford, Carlow, and Kilkenny, were held by Aymer de Valence, earl of Pembroke, Roger Bigod, earl of Norfolk (*d.* 1306), and Gilbert de Clare, earl of Gloucester, respectively, representing three of the five co-heiresses of the Marshall family. The seignories of Leix and Kildare, which had been assigned on partition to the two remaining co-heiresses respectively, and which completed the lordship of Leinster originally vested in Strongbow, had again become subdivided. Kildare indeed was mainly in the king's hands and ranked as a county with a regular sheriff, while Leix, though claimed by Roger de Mortimer through his grandmother, had in part been recovered by the O'Mores. The Earldom of Kildare was not created until 1316, that of Ormond not until 1328, and that of Desmond not until 1329, but prior to these dates the two branches of the Geraldines and the house of Butler supplied the most powerful landowners in the districts comprised within those earldoms. The junior offshoots of the Munster Geraldines, known as the Knight of Glin, the White Knight, and the Knight of Kerry respectively, though established in the positions indicated in the map at the time represented, were probably not known by those titles until a somewhat later period. In Thomond the de Clares and O'Briens were fighting for the mastery. The English family names placed on the map have been mainly taken from Sweetman's 'Calendar of Documents' relating to Ireland, but in locating them assistance has been derived from many sources. The names of persons summoned to the Parliament held at Kilkenny in 1309 are set forth in Rot. Pat. 3 Ed. II. 45, and have been printed in Grace's 'Annals,' Ir. Arch. Soc., p. 170; cf. Lynch's 'Legal Institutions,' p. 312. The principal walled towns are marked with green, and the principal castles by a distinguishing sign, but it must be borne in mind that at this time everybody's house was, in a literal sense, his castle.

GODDARD H. ORPEN.

XXX

IRELAND UNDER THE EARLY TUDORS

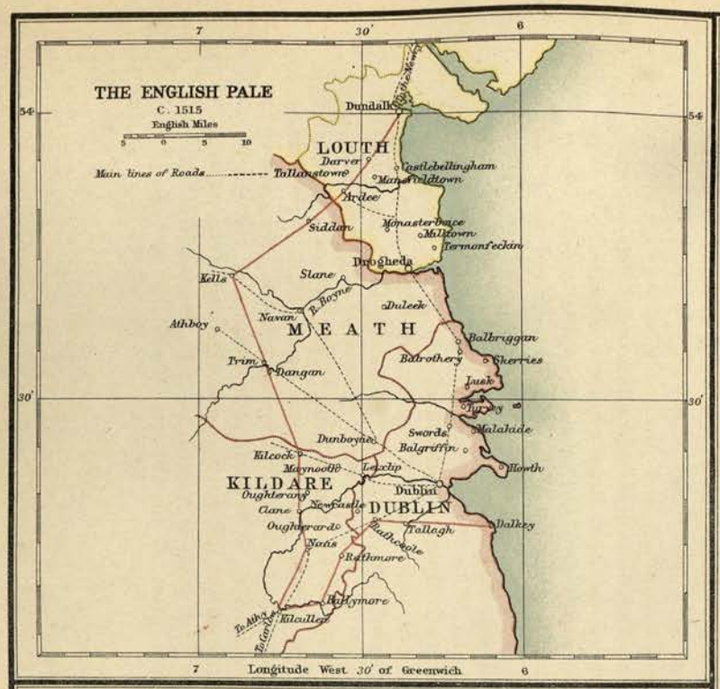
XXX

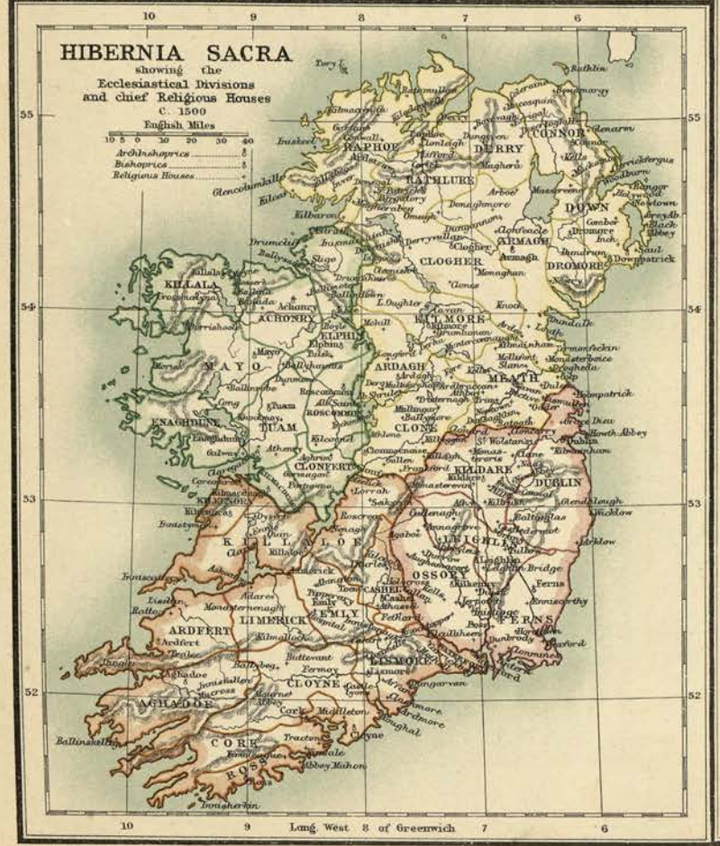
IRELAND UNDER THE EARLY TUDORS

THE history of Ireland from 1318, when the attempt of Edward Bruce to found a purely Scottish kingdom was finally frustrated at the battle of Dundalk, to 1537, when the execution of Thomas Fitzgerald, called 'Silken Thomas,' at Tyburn, and the downfall of the princely house of Kildare, paved the way for the reconquest of the island, is the history of the decline of the Anglo-Norman colony founded by HENRY II, and the reversion of the island into a state of semi-barbarism. The old system, social and political, partly feudal, partly tribal, which had survived the shock of the Scottish invasion, but had all but been shattered to pieces in the struggle, was powerless to resist the subsequent revival of purely Celtic ideas. The great Anglo-Norman barons, whose palatine jurisdictions had from the beginning constantly menaced the authority of the crown, following the example of Thomas Fitzmaurice of Desmond, were, the first, owing partly to the force of circumstances, partly to the desire to render themselves even more independent, to assimilate themselves to the new system, and to become, in process of time, more Irish than the Irish themselves. Only in the vicinity of Dublin and of the large seaport towns like Waterford and Galway, where the Anglo-Norman element preponderated over the native, or where the municipal sense was active, did the old system continue in anything like its former strength. To preserve these vestiges of their dominion was the object both of the colonists themselves and of the English Government whenever domestic tranquillity or the exigencies of continental politics rendered intervention possible; and with this aim Acts were passed of the most stringent description, of which the famous Statute of Kilkenny (1367) is the type and best-known example. But the impossibility of enforcing enactments directed against intermarriages between the settlers and the mere Irish, and the adoption of such customs as gossipred and fosterage, led, as the process of absorption went on and the boundaries of the colony, or 'English land' as it was called, became more contracted, to fresh measures of a more practical nature. 'As the marches of the four shires,' reads an Act passed at Drogheda in 1494, 'lie open and not fensible in fastness of ditches and castles, by which Irishmen do great hurt in preying the same: it is enacted that every inhabitant, earth-tiller and occupier in said marches, i.e. in the county of Dublin, from the water of Auliffy to the mountain in Kildare, from the water of Auliffy to Trim, and so forth to Meath and Uriel, as said marches are made and limited by an Act of Parliament, held by William Bishop of Meath, do build and make a double ditch of six feet high above ground at one side, or part which mireth next unto Irishmen, betwixt this and next Lammas, the said ditches to be kept up and repaired as long as they shall occupy said lands, under pain of forty shillings, the lord of said lands to allow the old rent of said lands to the builder for one year under said penalty.' From this and similar enactments it would seem that the *Pale* (an expression which apparently came into use about this time and survived well into the seventeenth century) had originally the significance attached to *palus*, of a regular fence or enclosure, the lines of which are accurately given in the first inset map accompanying from a document roughly assignable to the beginning of the sixteenth century. How far the pale or rampart thus erected formed an adequate protection against the incursions of the Irish enemy is open to question. But, from the fact that the inhabitants of the four shires were willing to pay an annual sort of black-rent to the neighbouring Irish chieftains even so late as 1515, its efficacy as a means of defence may well be doubted. To the dwellers inside the Pale the country outside, covered as it was with immense and almost impenetrable forests, intersected by huge bogs and inhabited by fierce and warlike clans, was, as it long continued to be, even to the statesmen of Elizabeth's reign, a veritable *terra incognita*.

During this period of decadence the ecclesiastical history of Ireland is involved in considerable obscurity. The second inset map accompanying is designed to show the ecclesiastical divisions that existed at the time; but it must be explained that from time to time great changes occurred in regard to the boundaries and even to the very existence of certain dioceses. How uncertain our knowledge of the ecclesiastical history of these times must necessarily be, the most cursory glance at Ware's lists of bishops will suffice to demonstrate.

Compiled as these maps are from documents in large measure unpublished, and intended to illustrate the history of Ireland from the view of the English in Ireland rather than from a purely native point of view, the system of spelling adopted will, it is trusted, commend itself to those who depend chiefly for their information on English rather than Irish sources. Taken together, they will give a fair idea of the state of Ireland at the moment when the re-conquest of the island began seriously to occupy the attention of HENRY VIII. By that time the old county boundaries, dating back to the reign of King JOHN, had almost completely disappeared, and outside the narrow limits of the Pale the country had practically relapsed into the possession of the native Irish. Nevertheless, the marks of the Anglo-Norman conquest still survived, and were visible everywhere. Vast tracks of land had passed out of the hands of the native Irish into those of the Butlers, Geraldines, and Burkes.





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Powerful ancient clans like the O'Conors of Connaught, the Kavanaghs of Leinster, and the O'Sullivans of Munster, had lapsed into comparative insignificance; while others like the O'Conors of Offaly, formerly insignificant, had grown into importance. Only in Ulster did the country present much the same aspect as it did before Strongbow's invasion, and even there the arrival of a small colony of Scots islesmen in the extreme north-east gave promise of fresh complications in the near future. In the present map an attempt has been made to depict, as accurately as the materials for it would permit, the physical and ethnical features of the island prior to the wars of ELIZABETH and the importation of fresh settlers under her and JAMES I, and the student, it is presumed, will readily distinguish between family or clan names, printed in italic capitals, and the names of districts, printed in small capitals. Like the Celts of ancient times, the Irish lived a more or less nomadic and pastoral life, and it has therefore been thought unnecessary to encumber the map with the names of hamlets and villages and crannogs whose very existence was unknown outside their immediate vicinity.

Of roads, in the ordinary sense of the word, the country was nearly destitute. Within the Pale itself certain lines of communication existed between the chief towns, and a fairly good road ran between Dublin and Kilkenny through Athy and old Leighlin, communicating with Waterford, and from Waterford with Wexford on the one side and Cork on the other. But the safest and quickest route between the metropolis and Waterford and Cork was by sea; while, but for the sea, Limerick and Galway would have been absolutely inaccessible. In order to obstruct the progress of invasion, the favourite devices of the Irish were to plash the woods, i. e. to interlace the lower boughs of the trees and underwood, to destroy the fords, and to dig deep holes in the rivers. Hence in all earlier grants of lands made by ELIZABETH one of the most stringent clauses related to the cutting of passes through the woods, the construction of bridges, and the preservation of fords.

In the large seaport towns men lived under very similar conditions to those of Bristol or Chester, and in the Pale the country presented much the same aspect as it did in the rural districts of England. Along the marches, where peace alternated at rare intervals with an almost incessant state of warfare, English and Irish customs prevailed side by side, the inhabitants purchasing an indifferent kind of immunity by the payment of black rent to some powerful neighbouring nobleman or Irish chief, as the case might be. Across the border the old Irish system flourished in all its pristine vigour. Bound by no other considerations save the traditions of his clan, or, if a urragh or vassal chief, by the payment of certain stipulated dues to some more powerful chief, each Irish chieftain reigned supreme in his own territory. 'To rob and spoile their enimies,' observes Stanihurst, 'they deeme it none offense, nor seeke anie meanes to recover their losse, but even to watch them the like turne; but if neighbors and friends send their purveiors to purloine one another, such actions are judged by the breighons.' Abundantly provided by nature with wild game and fish of all sorts, and with a soil admirably adapted for cultivation, the native Irish depended mainly for their subsistence on their cattle, of which they kept vast herds. 'They feede,' says Fynes Moryson, 'most on white meates, and esteem for a great dainty sower curds.' 'No meat,' says Stanihurst, 'they fansie so much as porke, and the fatter the better. One of John O'Nel's houshold demanded of his fellow whether beefe were better than porke; that (quoth the other) is as intricat a question as to aske whether thou art better than O'Nele.' And another writer records how on his death-bed Con O'Neill left his curse to any of his posterity that would either learn English, sow wheat, or make any building in Ulster, saying that language bred conversation, and consequently their confusion, that wheat gave sustenance with like effect, and, in building, they should do but as the crow doth, make her nest to be beaten out by the hawk.

Apart from such maps and documents as are not easily accessible, the following authorities may be consulted with advantage, viz.: 'Statute of Kilkenny,' ed. Hardiman; 'Annals of Clynn,' ed. Butler; 'Annals of the Four Masters' and 'Topographical Poems of O'Dubhagain and O'Huidhrin,' ed. O'Donovan; 'Annals of Loch Cé,' ed. Hennessy; King's 'Primer of the Catholic Church in Ireland'; Reeves' 'Ecclesiastical Antiquities'; Ware's 'Bishops and Antiquities' (in his 'Whole Works,' ed. Harris, 1764); Archdall's 'Monasticon Hibernicum'; Davis's 'Discoverie of the true causes why Ireland was never entirely subdued'; 'Calendar of the Carew MSS.,' especially the Journies of the Earl of Sussex; 'State Papers, Henry VIII' (printed), vol. ii. Ireland, more particularly the maps and the first tract; 'Calendar of State Papers, Ireland, Eliz. and Jas. I,' passim; 'Calendar of Fiants, Hen. VIII–Eliz.'; 'Hiberniae nova descriptio' in Ortelius' 'Theatrum Orbis Terrarum,' Speed's map, and the map of Ireland ascribed to Laurence Nowell, published by the Ordnance Commissioners.

ROBERT DUNLOP.

XXXI

IRELAND FROM 1541—1653

LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

XXXI

IRELAND FROM 1541—1653

I. THE upper of the two small maps on the accompanying plate is designed to illustrate the development of the English rule and the growth of parliamentary representation in Ireland between 1541 and 1641. If we compare it with Plate XXX, the most noticeable feature is the alteration in the provincial boundaries, giving to the map much the same aspect (except for County Clare, again re-annexed to Munster) that it has to-day. In regard to the county divisions, an attempt has been made to show how they came gradually to assume their present shapes, as e.g. in the case of *King's County*, which, though it began to be shired in 1560, did not attain its present actual dimensions till 1576. Again, certain counties (printed in italic capitals) were during the period absorbed in others of more recent creation, as *Coleraine* in that of *Londonderry*, *Carrickfergus* partly in *Antrim*, partly in *Down*, *Ferns* in *Wexford*, and *Desmond* in *Kerry*. Setting apart the old counties of the Pale, which with the exception of *Meath* (formerly embracing part of West Meath) and *Carlow* (spreading into Wexford), retained their ancient bounds, the work of shiring Ireland was accomplished by the Earl of Sussex, Sir Henry Sidney, and Sir John Perrot, by virtue of the Acts 3 & 4 Philip and Mary, cap. 2, 3, and 11 Elizabeth, sess. 3, cap. 9. By consulting the dates in each case one can trace the gradual extension of the English authority, though it must not be forgotten that the disturbed state of Ireland during the later years of ELIZABETH'S reign rendered that authority more nominal than real, and that it was not till the beginning of JAMES I's reign that the arrangement arrived at by Sidney in *Connaught* and Perrot in *Ulster* became actually operative. The same thing shows itself in the parliamentary representation, passing from black at first tentatively through blue, and more firmly through red, till reaching its final stage at the eve of the great rebellion in violet, each county and borough returning two members. In regard to the numerous boroughs created by JAMES, it is necessary to note that, owing to the remonstrance of the Roman Catholics, those of *Tullow*, *Lismore*, *Clonakilty*, *Carlow*, *Fethard* in County Wexford, *Augher*, *Belfast*, *Clogher*, *Athlone*, and *Gowran* suffered a temporary disfranchisement in 1614. After 1634 the *Cross of Tipperary* ceased to be separately represented.

II. 1. The principal map illustrates the settlement and plantation of Ireland during this period. The first step was made in 1541, when HENRY VIII, acting on the advice of Sir Anthony St. Leger, and in pursuance of his policy of conquest by 'sober ways, politic shifts, and amiable persuasions,' agreed to accept the surrender by Turlough O'Toole and his brother Art of Fercullen, a district some five miles square, lying between the rivers Annamoe and Vartry in Wicklow, and to re-grant the same to them and their heirs to hold from the Crown *in capite* by knight's tenure. Though forfeited by Art's son Barnaby in 1596, the grant was recovered by the latter's son Phelim, and was in force in 1641. O'Toole's submission was followed by that of O'Donnell, MacMahon, O'More, O'Conor Faly, O'Neill, and in short by almost every chieftain of importance. In each case a similar course was pursued as in that of O'Toole; the recognition of HENRY'S temporal and spiritual supremacy being followed by the recognition, more or less explicit, on his part of every individual chief as the feudal lord of the territory occupied by his clan. The weak point in the arrangement lay in the fact that it failed to take into account the complicated relations existing between the chief himself and his clan. So long, indeed, as the arrangement entailed no practical alteration in the existing state of affairs, there was of course no reason why both chief and clansmen should not acquiesce in it. But this indifference naturally ceased when it was found to involve a conflict between the interests of the chief and his clan. The question then arose: Is the chieftainship an elective or an hereditary office? And for the chief: Is it better in the face of a possible rival to depend, as hitherto, on the suffrage of the clan, or in the interests of oneself and family to abide by the arrangement? The strength or weakness of the Crown would be responsible for the solution; but the power of the clan to force its will on its chief is an element not to be neglected in tracing the origin of those numerous rebellions that marked the course of ELIZABETH'S reign, leading to the re-conquest, bit by bit, of the whole island, and the plantation of the greater part of it by strangers.

2. The rebellion of the O'Conors of Offaly, and their allies the O'Mores of Leix, gave the occasion for the first step in this new direction. The rebellion itself was easily suppressed, but the elements of future disorder remained, and after some hesitation as to what course to pursue Offaly and Leix were declared to have escheated to the Crown, and authority given to the Earl of Sussex to shire the same by the name of *King's County* and *Queen's County*, and to allot estates therein to such subjects, English and Irish, 'as for the more sure planting and strength of the countries with good subjects shall be thought unto his wisdom and discretion meet and convenient.' Six years elapsed before Sussex found himself in a position to carry out his instructions; but in 1563–4 grants were made to such natives as seemed likely to prove loyal, and to a number of Englishmen, servitors for the most part, who having won their lands by the sword might be expected to know how to retain them. The estates held *in capite* were comparatively small in size, averaging between 400 and 500 acres, the only exception being in the case of Terence O'Dempsey, ancestor of Viscount Clanmalier, who

IRELAND

1541-1641

Showing the Growth of

PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION

English Miles

10 5 0 10 20 30 40

Explanation

Old counties & boroughs (MEATH)

Counties & boroughs created by Eliz. represented in 1585. (TYRONE)

Counties & boroughs created by Jas I. represented in 1613. (Newry)

Boroughs created by Charles I. represented in 1634 & 1639. (Carvey)

IRELAND

under the Commonwealth

according to the act of Settlement 26th Sept. 1653

showing also

PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION

under the Instrument of Government

with the grouping of Counties and Boroughs

Explanation

Lands allotted to Adventurers and Soldiers

Lands consigned to innocent native proprietors

Long. W. 8 of Green.

IRELAND

C.1641

illustrating the Plantations & Settlements under

ELIZABETH, JAMES I & CHARLES I.

English Miles

10 5 0 10 20 30

Explanation

Practical Extension of the Pale

Elizabethan plantations

Jacobean "

Scots settlements

Exceptional settlements on a native basis

Unplanted districts

Longitude West 8 of Greenwich

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

retained 1,500 acres. Almost fifty years of incessant warfare between the new settlers and the old proprietors were to pass away before the former could be said to be in undisputed possession of their estates, and in the meantime rebellion followed by forfeiture had weeded out most of the natives estated by Sussex.

3. Already in the reign of HENRY VIII the difficulty of settling Ireland had become further complicated, owing to the immigration of a body of Scots islesmen, MacDonnells, into the glynnes along the coast of *Antrim*, driven thither by the pressure of their neighbours in Scotland, the Campbells and Gordons. Every effort to dislodge them by force having failed, the Government, early in ELIZABETH'S reign, adopted the plan, in order to prevent their further inroad southward, of assigning large grants of lands in 1571–2 to Captain Thomas Chatterton, Nicholas, afterwards Sir Nicholas Maltby, and Sir Thomas Smith, between *Carrickfergus* and the southern shores of *Lough Neagh*, on the condition of planting them with Englishmen within a limited time. The project failed, as did also a more ambitious undertaking on the part of Walter Devereux, Earl of Essex, to colonize Antrim; and in 1586 the Government, yielding to the inevitable, granted letters of denisation to Sorley Boy MacDonnell, ancestor of the Earls of Antrim, and terminated the contest by recognizing his claim to the glynnes. From that time the stream of immigration from Scotland set steadily in, till, the accession of JAMES I having removed the last barrier between the two nations, the whole of *Antrim* and *Northern Down* became practically inhabited by Scots.

4. The same year (1586) that saw the settlement of Antrim and Down saw also the confiscation of the vast estates of Gerald Fitzgerald, fifteenth Earl of Desmond, and his allies, amounting to more than half a million acres of the most fertile land in *Munster*. In this case the chief difficulty that confronted the Government was not, as had been the case in Leix and Offaly, the opposition of the natives, but the impossibility of finding colonists in sufficient numbers to re-populate the vast tract of land at its disposal. In order to solve this difficulty, the land was divided into parcels, called seignories, of 12,000, 8,000, 6,000, and 4,000 acres, and assigned to undertakers of standing and ability, who undertook the responsibility of planting them with Englishmen. The estates were all in free and common socage at a small nominal rent to the Crown; but it was soon seen that few of the undertakers had the means or ability to fulfil the conditions of their grants, and before the plantation had time to take root it was swept away by the storm of the Earl of Tyrone's rebellion. But, the rebellion suppressed, the undertakers and their tenants returned to their estates and farms, and during the long period of peace that intervened between the accession of JAMES I and the rebellion of 1641 the plantation, owing to the encouraging example of Richard Boyle, Earl of Cork, became firmly established.

5. The settlement of *County Monaghan* under Sir William Fitzwilliam, in 1591, holds a place somewhat apart from the plantations proper. The occasion was the rebellion and execution of Hugh Roe MacMahon, and the forfeiture thereby of practically the whole of the county, with the exception of the barony of Farney, of which the Earl of Essex had obtained a grant in compensation for the losses incurred by him in trying to colonize County Antrim. Six MacMahons and a MacKenna benefited chiefly by this settlement, receiving grants *in tail male* of estates averaging about 4,000 acres to hold *in capite* by knight's service, forfeiture to follow the election or recognition of any one of them as The MacMahon. Liberal provision was at the same time made for their respective tribesmen, who were converted into a sort of free tenantry, their former services being commuted into an annual rent. In other words, the settlement of Monaghan was a repetition on a larger scale of the plan pursued by HENRY VIII in regard to the O'Tooles of Fercullen.

6. The rebellion, actual or suspected, of Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, and Rory O'Donnell, Earl of Tyrconnell, in 1607, followed the year after by the rising of Sir Cahir O'Dogherty, together with the attainder about the same time of Sir Donnell O'Cahan, having placed at the disposal of Government the whole of the counties of *Tyrone*, *Armagh*, *Donegal*, and *Coleraine*, the opportunity of effecting a plantation in *Ulster* on a large scale was seized to add to the confiscated territory the two counties of *Fermanagh* and *Cavan*—the former on the ground of the suspected complicity of Cuconnacht Maguire, the patentee of nearly the whole of it in Tyrone's treasonable design, the latter by the death in actual rebellion in 1597 of Philip O'Reilly. To accomplish this the resources of the law were strained to their utmost extremity. Setting aside the *County of Londonderry* assigned to the twelve livery companies of London, the whole of this territory was divided into proportions of 2,000, 1,500, and 1,000 acres, for allotment to British undertakers, servitors, and natives, each proportion to be held in free and common socage at a yearly rent to the Crown from the undertakers, after the expiration of four years, of £5 for every 1,000 acres, with condition to plant with British tenants under pain of forfeiture; from the servitors, of £8 for every 1,000 acres, with condition to build, but permission to retain natives; and from the natives, of £10 13*s.* 4*d.* for every 1,000 acres. But notwithstanding the favourable terms granted the undertakers the rush for land was not so great as might have been expected. Indeed, according to Sir Francis Blundell, 'in the beginning of that plantation men were in a measure compelled to take land, many refusing it when it was offered. And some years after the plantation was begun, I being there could have bought many thousand acres for £50 the thousand, and would not.' But despite the slow progress it made at first, and the terror inspired by Wentworth's threat of confiscation, the plantation took firm root, especially in the district of the Lagan, and survives in its main outlines at the present day.

7. Ulster had scarcely been partitioned when a scheme was set on foot by Sir Arthur Chichester in 1610 for the plantation of the northern half of *Wexford*, on the ground that it was ever 'a corner from whence many rebellions have taken their beginnings, and is still a den of all manner of offenders.' A title for the Crown was found in an old grant of the district by Richard II to Sir John de Beaumont, forfeited by the treason of his heir, Francis Lord Lovel, in 1 Hen. VII. Of the 65,000 acres of land thus declared to have escheated to the Crown about a quarter was held in legal possession chiefly by Sir Richard Masterson, Walter Synnot, and Art MacDermot Kavanagh. The remainder Chichester proposed to divide into two about equal proportions, the one to be assigned to the better class of natives, the other to be devoted to plantation purposes. A number of grants were accordingly made, but owing to the strong opposition of the natives and legal possessioners the scheme had been only very partially

carried into effect when Chichester surrendered the government to Oliver St. John, afterwards Lord Grandison, in 1616. Under St. John's direction it was so far modified that additional lands were found to estate 150 natives, leaving about 16,000 acres only to be allotted to undertakers, in proportions of 1,500 and 1,000 acres in common socage at an annual rent of £4 per thousand acres. But the undertakers were, according to Sir Francis Blundell, 'all servitors, men of good ability and such as knew the danger of the work, who, looking more upon their own safety than any present profit, built many and fair and strong castles, houses, and farms upon their proportions, and thereby made that part of the country strong and defensible against an Irish enemy.'

8. Simultaneously almost with his plan for the plantation of Wexford, Chichester started another for the plantation of *County Longford* and the district of *Ely O'Carrol* in King's County. A title 300 years old was raked up for the Crown, but as this was hardly likely to satisfy the natives, especially of Longford, whose rights had been acknowledged by Sir Henry Sidney in 1571 and confirmed by Mountjoy in 1605, they were induced by threats and cajolery to surrender their lands for plantation purposes, 'and in that,' as Sir Francis Blundell naïvely remarked, 'all questions are ended.' Of the 103,062 acres, the one half lying in Longford, the other in Ely O'Carrol, thus claimed by the Crown, three-fourths were to be restored to the natives, and the remaining fourth, consisting of 25,765 acres distributed in proportions of 1,000, 600, 500, 400, 300, and 200 acres, was to be assigned to servitors who had not secured lands elsewhere,—the proportions of 1,000 acres, of which there were only five, to be held *in capite* by knight's service, the rest in common socage at an annual rent of *2d.* per acre. Things had reached this point when the King was induced by Lord Balfour to increase the rent to *3d.* per acre, with a fine of £200 per thousand acres on passing their patents. The proposal practically killed the project, and in May, 1621, the Lord Deputy reported that the plantation 'lies still as it was at the beginning, few of the undertakers have passed their patents, and none of them have sitten down or begun any plantation, and but very few have appeared here in person at all.'

9. One other such failure called a plantation remains to be noticed, viz. of *County Leitrim* and the *western district of West Meath*, *King's County* and *Queen's County*, consisting of 121,762 acres, of which 69,843 were situated in Leitrim and 51,929 in the other counties. It likewise owed its origin to Chichester, but in consequence of the serious opposition of Sir John MacCoghlan, and the fact that no title could be found for the Crown, it remained in abeyance till 1620, when the natives were induced to surrender their rights into the King's hands. According to the scheme of plantation, one-half of all the lands in County Leitrim and one-fourth of those in the other counties were to be assigned to undertakers and servitors, the rest to be restored to the natives. Setting aside two proportions, each of 5,000 acres, six of 1,500 acres, and five of 1,000 acres, the lands were divided into proportions of 800, 700, 600, 500, 400, 300, and 200 acres, those of 800 acres and upwards being held *in capite*, the lesser in common socage at an annual rent of *3d.* per acre, with a fine of £100 per thousand acres on passing their patents, to be devoted to the building of *Jamestown* in Leitrim. But, except that it provided an admirable opportunity for speculating in land, and furnished the natives with a standing grievance, it proved utterly abortive.

10. Undeterred, however, by these failures, the Lord Deputy Falkland made several desperate efforts in the reign of CHARLES I to effect a plantation of the hitherto unplanted districts in *Connaught* and *Leinster*. But his efforts were steadily resisted by the Commissioners for Irish affairs, who had at last begun to doubt the policy of transferring large tracts of land from resident natives to absentee undertakers; and it was not till Wentworth succeeded to the government that the project for a further plantation assumed a serious aspect. In proposing to create a plantation in Connaught, Ormonde, and the Ranelagh, Wentworth had, apart from his desire to bind Ireland more firmly to England, a double object in view, viz. to increase the revenue of the Crown, and above all to create an English and Protestant counterpoise to the Scottish and Presbyterian plantations created by James I. But before he had done more than force a reluctant consent from the natives of Connaught, and effect a partial survey of the district, he and his plans were swept away by the Rebellion.

III. The lower of the inset maps on the plate illustrates the geography of Ireland under the Commonwealth.

1. It represents in outline (based on Prendergast's Cromwellian Settlement, Dublin, 1875) the scheme of the settlement of Ireland according to the Act of Sept. 26, 1653, and subsequent proclamations, by which the whole island, with the exception of part of Connaught, including County Clare (assigned to such Irish proprietors as could prove their innocence of bloodshed and constant good affection to the Parliament of England), was allotted in satisfaction (1) of the claims of the adventurers who had advanced money, amounting to £360,000, for the suppression of the rebellion; (2) of arrears of the army actually engaged in the suppression of the rebellion since June 5, 1649; (3) of arrears for service in England before June 5, 1649, called 'English arrears'; (4) of arrears for service in Ireland before June 5, 1649, called shortly '49 arrears, amounting in all to £1,550,000; and (5) of debts due for supplies of money and provisions advanced to the army, amounting to £1,750,000.

2. The map shows the plan for the representation of Ireland in the United Parliament according to the provisions of the Instrument of Government of Dec. 16, 1653, and a subsequent Ordinance of the Lord Protector Oliver for elections in Ireland, with the manner in which the thirty members so assigned were distributed; each electoral division returning two members, with the exception of Counties Dublin and Cork, where however the deficiency was compensated by assigning one member to Dublin city, one to Cork and Youghal, and a third to Bandon and Kinsale. Londonderry and Coleraine returned one member between them; as also did Carrickfergus and Belfast, Limerick and Kilmallock, Clonmel and Waterford.

ROBERT DUNLOP.

XXXII

THE FRANKISH DOMINIONS IN MEROVINGIAN TIMES (486–768)

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THE name of the Franks first appears in the map, dating from the third century, which is known from a former possessor as the Table of Peutinger. It was then applied to the Chamavi who dwelt on the Lower Rhine. Their settlements between the Rhine, the Meuse, and the Scheld, were on Roman ground: they were received by the Emperor Julian as soldiers into Roman service, and they came to form the garrison of the Imperial frontier. They consisted of a number of small tribes, under independent rulers, and two of these tribes, the Salians and the Ripuarians, acquired such a preponderance that they have usually been spoken of as though each separately, or the two together, possessed the characteristics of a single nationality. In the fifth century the Franks appear in friendly alliance with the representatives of Roman power in northern Gaul, AEGIDIUS and his son SYAGRIUS, who succeeded him in 464; but when in 476 the Western Empire was suppressed it is possible that the Franks deemed Syagrius to be attached to the upstart kingdom of Odoacer, and preferred themselves to support the Emperor ZENO. At all events, the Salian CHLODOVECH (called by the French Clovis), who succeeded his father Childeric in 481, and whose seat was at Tournay, is described as holding the administration of the Roman province of *Belgica Secunda*[1]. In 486 he defeated Syagrius at the battle of Soissons, and not only acquired his dominions, but was also joined by the Roman army quartered in Gaul[2]. In 491 he subdued the Thoringi, a race settled on the left bank of the Lower Rhine, and by degrees brought under his sway the various tribes of the Salians, which had hitherto been independent of the ruler of Tournay; but the chronology of these minor conquests is quite uncertain. In 496 Chlodovech overthrew the Alamans at a battle the site of which is unknown—for its identification with Zülpich (*Tolbiacus*) is generally rejected—and subjugated their territory. This is the geographical situation indicated by the colouring of the accompanying map.

In 507 Chlodovech made war against the Visigoths, who held the south of Gaul as far as the Loire, and beat them at Vouillé (*Vogladensis*, not Vouillon). In three years he conquered the land down to and even beyond the Garonne. Last of all, it seems, he turned his forces against his previous allies the Ripuarian Franks (about Cologne), and possessed himself of their country. The commanding position attained by Chlodovech, and his status as the representative of the Roman tradition in Gaul, were recognized by the proconsular dignity conferred upon him by the Emperor ANASTASIUS about 508. His attempt, however, to gain *Provence* was frustrated by the intervention of the Ostrogoth THEODERIC THE GREAT, who secured it for himself.

On the death of Chlodovech in 511 his kingdom was divided among his four sons. The practice of partition continued for generations to be the prevailing rule of the Frankish dynasty. Each king ranked equally as King of the Franks, and the death of any one of them commonly involved a new partition. The boundaries of the successive rearrangements are exceedingly confused, the two normal principles being that each king should have his seat at one of the central cities of Soissons, Paris, Orléans, and Metz (or Rheims), and that the king who ruled over what may be called for distinction the German regions should also hold a detached territory dependent upon Auvergne (*Arverni*, known at a later date as Clermont-Ferrand). Four inset maps indicate the partitions of 511, 561, 587, and 625. These have been taken from M. A. Longnon's Atlas, but although they are the result of minute topographical researches, the details of which will be found in this scholar's 'Géographie de la Gaule au sixième siècle' (Paris, 1878), a large number of points in the delimitation remain obscure. M. Longnon considers it probable that the portion of the south-west of Gaul which is distinguished by a pink outline in the map of 511 was held jointly by the four brothers; but that this arrangement, which may have been dictated by the value of the Bordeaux vineyards, did not necessarily involve the extreme south-west, which was possibly held by the eldest, THEODERIC. The details, however, of the Frankish conquest of this last territory—Novempopulana—are altogether uncertain, and the whole of it was not finally surrendered by the Visigoths until 567.

In 531 Theoderic extended his German possessions by the conquest of the Thuringians, but whether he annexed their whole country, or whether the tract lying north of the river Unstrut (*Onestrudis*) did not fall into the hands of the independent Saxons, cannot be positively stated. In 532 the younger brothers, CHLOTHACHAR and CHILDEBERT, subdued the Burgundian kingdom after a battle at Autun (*Augustodunum*), and afterwards divided it among themselves and THEODEBERT the son of Theoderic, who died in 533.

In 536 the Franks occupied *Provence*, but it was long divided between two of their rulers; one holding Avignon and a strip reaching to the coast eastward, and the other the inland tract and the greater part of the sea-board of the country. On the east, *Bavaria* owed some sort of allegiance to the Franks from the middle of the sixth century, but the Bavarian Duchy was not made really subject until the eighth.

[1] According to Gundlach's emendation of St. Remigius' Letter to Chlodovech; 'Neues Archiv' xiii. 380 (1888).

[2] Procopius, 'Bell. Goth.' i. 12.

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For a short time after 539 Theodebert gained some possessions in the north of Italy, but these were lost by his son Theodebald in 553. In the last quarter of the sixth century, again, the Franks of Burgundy made a transient addition to their territory by the conquest of the districts of *Aosta* (*Augusta*) and *Susa* (*Sigusium*), on the Italian side of the Alpine passes of Mount St. Bernard and Mont Genèvre (before 588). With this exception, by the middle of the sixth century the Merovingian dominions had grown to their full compass; for in spite of more than one attempt the kings never succeeded in conquering *Septimania* from the Visigoths, nor in extending their sway beyond the Pyrenees. Early in the eighth century the Visigoths lost Septimania, not, however, to the Franks but to the Mohammadan invaders from Spain. It was acquired by the Franks between 739 and 759.

Brittany after the death of Chlodovech acknowledged the Frankish supremacy, but never formed a real part of the kingdom.

The map showing the partition of 625 displays CHLOTHAR II's kingdom, with the Austrasian regions handed over to his son DAGOBERT. On Chlothar's death in September, 629[1], Dagobert united the whole land under his rule, but granted the south-west of Gaul (indicated by a green line) to his brother CHARIBERT II, who died in the following year.

In spite of continual conquests and reconquests, partitions and readjustments of territory, made for the most part without any regard for geographical considerations, the Frankish realm tended to fall into three, and then into two, well-marked divisions: *Austrasia*, centring in the original Ripuarian land; *Neustria*, in the Salian; and *Burgundy*. The attachment of the remoter districts still fluctuated; but Burgundy was, more commonly than not, ruled by the same king as Neustria. In the seventh century the power of the Mayors of the Palace prevailed over that of the kings, and by the victory of Testri in 687 the Austrasian Mayor PIPPIN succeeded in establishing his authority over Neustria. From that date the ascendency of Pippin was assured; he became Mayor of the entire kingdom, and his son CHARLES, known in later times as Charles Martel (or the Hammer), ruled, though without the name of king, until his death in 741.

During the decline of the Merovingian power the local forces in the extremities of the kingdom were able to assert themselves. In 641 or 642 the Thuringians cast off the Frankish allegiance; and from the beginning of the eighth century the growing strength of the dukes of Aquitania, while they never succeeded in gaining independence for any length of time, proved a constant cause of difficulty to the Frankish rulers.

[The principal map is modelled upon that of Dr. Menke.]

[1] This and the following date have by an accident been given erroneously in the map. The chronology of the Merovingian kings, as recently reconstructed by Dr. Krusch and Julien Havet, will be found in M. A. Giry's 'Manuel de Diplomatique,' p. 711 (1894).

XXXIII

THE FRANKISH DOMINIONS IN CAROLINGIAN TIMES (768–900)

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THE system of partition, which had been so frequent a source of weakness under the Merovingian dynasty, was not abandoned by the descendants of CHARLES MARTEL, the Carolings. On Charles' death in 741, the government of the kingdom was divided between his sons PIPPIN and CARLOMAN, but the latter retired into a monastery in 747, and his brother, after four years, advanced from virtual to real king in 751. In 759 Pippin annexed *Septimania*, the last remnant of the Visigothic possessions in Gaul, and after eight campaigns succeeded in reducing the Basques of *Aquitania* to subjection in 768, a task which had to be renewed by his son CHARLES THE GREAT in the following year.

On Pippin's death in 768, there was once more a partition of the kingdom, between his sons Charles the Great and Carloman (shown in an inset map); but Carloman died in 771, and the monarchy was reunited. Charles did not repeat the experiment, except in the form of erecting a particular district into a subordinate kingdom for one of his sons, as he did with Aquitania for his son LEWIS in 781.

His conquest of *Lombardy* and coronation as Emperor are without geographical importance, since his Italian possessions were always treated as lying altogether outside of the strict Frankish realm; but to this realm itself he made notable additions on both sides. On the south-west he conquered the *Spanish March*, a tract of country just beyond the Pyrenees (795), which was soon afterwards extended as far as *Barcelona* (801). On the north-east, after an arduous war, he subjugated the Saxons (772–804), and thrust forward his boundary up the Danish peninsula as far as the river Eider. Eastward, in 788, he incorporated *Bavaria*, which had hitherto been but loosely dependent upon the kingdom and had caused continual trouble by its rebellions. From Bavaria it was possible to move onward against the Avars (often but incorrectly called the Huns), who occupied the country beyond *Carinthia*. He forced them back as far as the river Raab in 791, and in 805 received their complete submission. After the loss of their independence the Avars ceased to preserve a national existence. In the western regions towards Carinthia they became confounded among the German or Slavonian inhabitants, in the east with the Bulgarians. The limit of the Frankish conquest is not marked in this map, because of its uncertainty; in 826 it was still undefined. It is however indicated, somewhat conjecturally, in the map of Europe, Plate 4.

Over the Bohemians, and some of the Wendish races further north, Charles acquired a still more shadowy acknowledgment of superiority.

In our map the part coloured pink is that over which, at Charles' accession, the Franks had claims; even if in Bavaria, for instance, Carinthia, and Thuringia, they were not always or even usually enforced. The yellow colouring marks the territories which had never before been ruled by Frankish kings.

The kingdom under LEWIS THE PIOUS, the son of Charles the Great, remained undivided, although in 816 a plan was agreed upon for its partition among his three sons in the event of his death. The various grants and regrants which were forced from the weak Emperor by his sons need not be here recorded, since they effected no permanent geographical change. After, however, the death of Lewis in 840, and the civil war which followed[1], a treaty was made at *Verdun* in 843, which laid down for the first time a definite distinction of a German and a French kingdom, separated by a strip which was partly German and partly French. The Emperor LOTHAIR, the eldest, held, besides Italy, this intermediate district; LEWIS THE GERMAN had the eastern and CHARLES THE BALD the western kingdom. The names of France and Germany, as distinctive national names, are of later use; and it was some time before the Regnum Lotharii was fixed (within narrower limits) as *Lotharingia* (Lothringen or Lorraine). The kingdom of Lothair had as its eastern boundary, roughly speaking, the Rhine; but this was overpassed by the stronger brother, Lewis, who obtained the three rich tracts westward of the river from beyond Spires to Bingen *propter vini copiam*[2]. In like manner, though the Emperor held the greater part of *Burgundy*, he was not allowed the north-west corner, which from this time onward remained distinct from the rest of the Burgundian kingdom, and was distinguished as the *Duchy of Burgundy*. Lewis also obtained the Alaman and Raetian territories as far as the Alps. The partition of 843 is shown on the second inset map in the accompanying plate.

On the resignation and death of the Emperor Lothair in 855, his eldest son, LEWIS II, became Emperor and possessed Italy; while the second, LOTHAIR II, had Lotharingia; and the third, CHARLES, Provence. This last kingdom disappeared on the death of its ruler in 863, being divided between his two brothers. After the death of Lothair II in 869, Lewis the German succeeded in annexing the greater part of Lotharingia and Frisia, as well as Alsatia, which he had secured already. In this arrangement (see the third inset map) we may discern, even more clearly than in that of 843, a definite principle of partition by nationalities.

In 879, BOSO, Count of Vienne, had himself crowned king of *Lower Burgundy* and *Provence* (often described as the

[1] The decisive battle was fought in 841 at Fontanetum, which is now generally identified with Fontenoy-en-Puisaye, not Fontenailles. Both places are near together, south-west of Auxerre.

[2] Regino, Chron., a. 842.

THE FRANKISH DOMINIONS in CAROLINGIAN TIMES 768-900

English Miles.

Fortresses × Monasteries +

Frankish Dominions

Acquisitions of Chas the Great

Byzantine territory

PARTITION after the DEATH OF PIPPIN 768

PARTITION by the TREATY OF VERDUN 843

PARTITION OF 870

Environs of PARIS On enlarged Scale

OCEANUS OCCIDENTALIS

OCEANUS OCCIDENTALIS

MARE TYRRHENUM

MARE ADRIATICUS SINUS

OMAYYAD EMIRATE OF CORDUBA

Long. East of Greenwich

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kingdom of Arles, or Arelate, or Cisjurane Burgundy); and nine years later one Count RUDOLF followed his example in establishing a kingdom of *Upper* (or Transjurane) *Burgundy*. These lands ceased to be reckoned a part of the Frankish territories; and thus when the Emperor CHARLES III reunited the Frankish dominions in 884, in their compass from west to east, these were diminished by the extent of Lower Burgundy, and after his deposition in 887 by that of Upper Burgundy also. The two Burgundies continued, in the general collapse of the last years of the ninth century, to be distinct kingdoms; the rest broke up naturally into the three kingdoms of *Western* and *Eastern Francia* (in other words, France and Germany) and *Italy*. In 896 a sixth kingdom arose in *Lotharingia*, but this lasted only until 900. In these later years the whole empire was subject to constant attacks from Danes and Normans on the north, Wends on the north-east, Magyars (or Hungarians) on the east, and Saracens on the south. The separate geography of Germany and France, and of the countries connected with them, is continued in Plates 34, 53.

[This map is based upon that of Dr. Menke.]

XXXIV

GERMANY UNDER THE SAXON AND SALIAN DYNASTIES (919–1137)

XXXIV

GERMANY UNDER THE SAXON AND SALIAN DYNASTIES (919–1137)

THIS map represents the German Kingdom when it became definitely separate from the rest of the Frankish dominions. Its first salient feature is the distribution of the country into five great Duchies—*Saxony*, *Franconia*, *Bavaria*, *Suabia* (or *Alamannia*), and *Lotharingia*—each with strongly marked tribal feeling.

After the death of King Lewis the Child (911) *Lotharingia* (*Lorraine* or *Lothringen*) fell under the power of the West Frankish king and remained so until it was recovered for Germany by HENRY I, the first king of the Saxon House, in 925, from which date until the eighteenth century the Duchy of Lorraine was a part of the German Kingdom. The country was subsequently divided by his son, OTTO THE GREAT, into the two Duchies of Upper and Lower Lorraine. The Duchy of Upper Lorraine survived, while the Lower Duchy was broken up into a number of separate fiefs, the direct line being represented by the Duchy of Brabant.

Further south the Kingdom of *Upper Burgundy* (*Regnum Jurense*), which had been united with that of Lower Burgundy in 933, was with it bequeathed to the Empire by King RUDOLF III, who died in 1032, but though thus forming a part of the Imperial dominions it was always reckoned a distinct kingdom like that of Italy.

The second main feature of the map is the extension of Germany to North and Eastward. In the troubles of the beginning of the tenth century, the Danes, on the north, and the Wends in the east, had forced back the German boundary. Henry I recovered a certain part of the border land, restoring his frontier to the line of the Eider and the Schlei (the *March of Schleswig* or *Limes Danicus*). In like manner he and Otto the Great established a series of Marches, the *North March*, the *March of Zerbst* (which grew into the *March of Lusatia* or *Lausitz*), the *March of Merseburg*, the *March of Zeitz*, and the *March of Misnia* or *Meissen*; beyond which Bohemia was tributary. The Bohemian Duchy, however, was but an uncertain dependency of the German crown. In 936 it refused tribute, and did not submit again until about 946, while for a few years at the beginning of the eleventh century it was subject to Poland. Poland, though (as indicated on the map) for some time partly subject to Germany, formed no part of the German Kingdom.

Between the Danish and the Wendish Marches Otto the Great succeeded in establishing the new march called that of the *Billungs* from its first duke, Hermann the Billung, which ultimately extended along the coast of the Baltic as far as the mouth of the Peene.

In the east the Magyars or Hungarians conquered Moravia in 906, and forced their way up the valley of the Danube as far as the river *Enns* (*Anesus*), on the west bank of which the German fortress of Ennsburg (*Anesapurch*, now *Enns*) formed a very inadequate protection against the ravages which they made year after year into Carinthia and the countries further west. Otto's great victory over them on the river Lech, in 955, set a period to their advance, and by degrees a new *East March of Bavaria* beyond the Enns grew up into the March of *Austria* (*Ostarrichi*), which soon reached to the eastern boundary, which it has kept ever since.

The Duchy of *Carinthia* was also a portion of Bavaria, but was made into a distinct duchy in 976, at which date Bavaria lost also the *March of Verona* beyond the limits of Germany, which had been attached to it for the purpose of defence against the Hungarians in 952.

Moravia passed in 955 from the hands of the Hungarians into the possession of Bohemia, with which (except for the years 1003–1029, during which it was subject to Poland) it has since remained united.

The confines of the German Kingdom towards North and East fluctuated according as the Danes or the Wends were able to take advantage of internal difficulties to encroach upon the lands conquered from them; and for a while the growth of the Polish power threatened the German possessions to the north of Bohemia. But for the most part the German advance was not permanently checked.

This map is based, with certain modifications, upon that of Dr. Menke (Spruner, No. 37), whose fine series of maps of 'Deutschlands Gaue' at the end of the Carolingian period (Nos. 31–36) are indispensable for a detailed study of the history of the earlier topography of medieval Germany.

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XXXV

GERMANY UNDER THE HOUSE OF HOHENSTAUFEN

1138—1254

XXXV

GERMANY UNDER THE HOUSE OF HOHENSTAUFEN, 1138-1254

THIS map shows the territorial situation of Germany at the time of the accession of the Emperor CONRAD III, when the Guelph interest was at its height and the ascendency of the house of Suabia only beginning. The lands held by the Guelphs—so named from WELF I, Duke of Bavaria 1070-1101—in Saxony and Bavaria are coloured yellow; while the possessions of the house of Hohenstaufen, or Ghibellines as the Italians afterwards called them[1]—Hohenstaufen and Waiblingen are neighbouring castles in Suabia—are coloured pink. This same colour denotes also the strictly royal territories, such as those of the imperial cities and those administered by the king's stewards (*advocati*) in the Vogtland, Alsatia, and part of what is now Switzerland. In the following account it is sought to explain the greater territorial changes which came over Germany in the century of Suabian rule, and the leading features which mark out the period as one of transition between the age of more or less solid organization in the five duchies, represented in the preceding map, and that of complete disintegration, depicted in that which follows.

Boundaries. The German kingdom, bordered here in pink, had altered but little in its western and southern limits, for geographically it gained nothing by the union of Burgundy and Italy under the Empire. There were some slight modifications of the frontier towards France, and the Aargau, which had been accounted a part of Alamannia (Suabia), now belonged to the kingdom of Burgundy; but Suabia had crossed the Alps at two points, reaching the Lake of Como at one, and that of Garda at another, since the bishopric of Trent with its great territory was from the middle of the twelfth century reckoned German. The chief changes were to the east; and here they were more important in reality than they appear on the map. Carniola and Styria, hitherto insecurely attached to the duchy of Carinthia, now acquired an independent position; and the march of Austria was solidly established with its definitive eastern frontier at Pressburg. Moravia, which was made a margraviate in 1197, was a dependency of Bohemia; but its limits had been reduced in the course of the eleventh century, when the Hungarians conquered a considerable strip along the south-east border. Bohemia on the other hand, which rose in 1158 from a duchy to a kingdom, was enlarged in 1163 by the acquisition of Silesia and of the duchies of Opol and Ratibor from Poland. Further to the north-east the coast-lands of the Baltic—Pomerania and Prussia—were reckoned to be German; but the interior was to a large extent a debatable territory between Germany and Poland. Prussia itself was only won by the Teutonic Order, the advance-guard of Christianity and German civilization in these regions, during the years following 1231. On the north the island of Rügen, with a piece of the mainland reaching from the Recknitz to beyond Greifswald, had been acquired by Denmark. In the peninsula itself the frontier had long fallen back; and since 1027 the Limes Danicus had belonged to the northern kingdom, the German boundary now running from the mouth of the Eider to near Kiel.

Internal Changes. The leading feature of the period is the disintegration of the great duchies. Partly in consequence of grants of exemption to the great spiritual and temporal lords, and partly in consequence of the foundation of hereditary houses by the territorial counts—originally royal officers—the authority of the duke was cut athwart in various directions. The territories in ecclesiastical hands are coloured violet in the map, and a glance will show their vast dimensions. The lands held by the duke are distinguished by a surface colouring of the same tint as that which borders the duchy.

In *Upper Lotharingia* the duke had rivals in the Count of Bar and the Bishops of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, who between them thrust him out of the heart of his duchy. In *Lower Lotharingia*, unless the Archbishop of Cologne be supposed to have held the title, the old dukedom was practically represented by that of *Brabant*: beside it were the counties of Berg, Luxemburg, Flanders (the greater part of which, however, was subject to France), and Guelders; and the Archbishop of Treves and the Bishop of Liège were likewise possessed of large territories. The county of Hainault, to which in 1188 the marquisate of Namur was attached, and a portion of that of Flanders, were within the limits of Lower Lotharingia, but were not included in Brabant. In the coast regions of *Frisia* the Counts of Holland and Guelders and the Bishop of Utrecht held most of the land. The territory of the Count of Guelders extended to the south coast of the Zuider Zee, and the bishop's lands included Drenthe and Twenthe eastward of it. In the course of the thirteenth century this tract of water was enormously enlarged, and many of the islands and maritime districts between it and the open sea were submerged.

The changes suffered by the duchy of *Saxony* were so great that at the end of the period illustrated by the map the word denotes a territory and a rank altogether different from what existed at the beginning. In the first place, the

[1] Otto of Freising, who died in 1158, says: *Duae in Romano orbe apud Galliae Germaniaeve fines famosae familiae actenus fuere, una Heinricorum de Gueibelinga, alia Gwelforum de Aldorfo, altera imperatores, altera magnos duces producere solita:* 'Gest. Frider.' ii. 2. But the word 'Ghibelline' as a party name appears not to have come into use until the thirteenth century, and was then rarely employed out of Italy. Even its derivation has been disputed.

GERMANY
under the
HOUSE OF HOHENSTAUFEN
1138 - 1254
English Miles
Ab. Abbacy
AEp. Archiepiscopatus
C. Comitatus
D. Duchy (Ducatus)
Ep. Episcopatus
L. Landgraviate
M. Margraviate. March (Marchionatus)
Fortresses
Monasteries
Longitude East 14 of Greenwich
MARE BALTICUM
MARE ADRIATICUM
REGNUM ITALICUM
BRANDENBURG
POMERANIA
PRUZZIA
POLONIA
SANDOMIRIA
LUSATIAE
MISNIAE
SILESIA
BOHEMIAE
MORAVIA
HUNGARIA
BAVARIAE
SUEVIA
FRANCONIA
LOTHARINGIAE
SAXONIAE
BURGUNDIA
ALSATIA
HELVETIA
CARINTHIAE
CARNIOLA
Oxford: Clarendon Press
W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

North March, with part of the East March, was given a position independent of the Saxon Duchy, and became known as the margraviate of *Brandenburg*[1]. The margraviate of *Meissen* was also consolidated under princes of the house of Wettin, the ancestors of the present King of Saxony; and *Thuringia* had risen from a county to a landgraviate. Secondly, HENRY THE LION, Duke of Saxony, who had in 1156–1163 extended his territory along the Baltic coast as far as the Oder, was deposed in 1180, and the duchy was completely broken up. The Archbishop of Cologne obtained the ducal authority in the western regions, while the title of Duke of Saxony was given to the brother of the Margrave Otto of Brandenburg, Bernard, who held two detached and outlying districts surrounding Wittenberg and Lauenburg. The new duchy is (like the Brandenburg margraviate) distinguished as *Ascanian*, from the old fortress of the house, Ascania or Ascaria, hard by Aschersleben (near Quedlinburg). But a great part of the land itself was parcelled out among nine bishops and a large number of counts, among whom those of Holstein, Oldenburg, Mark, and Anhalt may be mentioned. All that remained to Henry the Lion was his allodial inheritance in Eastphalia—Lüneburg, Brunswick, Supplinburg, Nordheim, &c.—which was made into the duchy of *Brunswick* half a century later, in 1235.

The *Franconian* duchy had usually been united with the crown. It was now reckoned as consisting of two distinct parts, *Eastern Franconia* and *Rhenish Franconia*. Under the house of Hohenstaufen, down to 1196, the former was held, as the duchy of *Rothenburg*, by a member of the royal family; but the title of Duke of Franconia was also borne by the Bishops of Würzburg. Rhenish Franconia was held under Frederick Barbarossa by his brother Conrad, on whom the Emperor conferred also the Palatinate (*Pfalz*) of the Rhine. The combination of this double authority largely enhanced the position of the Count Palatine among the princes of Germany. His territory ran in detached portions from near Oberwesel on the Rhine to beyond Heidelberg. Among the ecclesiastical lords in this duchy the Bishops of Würzburg and Bamberg and the Abbot of Fulda were the most considerable.

Suabia, during this period (with a brief interval) the Emperor's own duchy, included Alsatia. One of the most important families in it was that of the Dukes of *Zähringen* in the Breisgau, whose ramifications embrace the Dukes of *Teck* and other great Suabian houses, as well as the Margraves of *Baden*, whose lands ran into Franconia. The Dukes of Zähringen themselves held extensive territories and offices, not only in Suabia, but also in the adjacent districts of Burgundy. On the death of the last duke in 1218, his younger sister, the wife of Count Ulrich of Kyburg, transmitted her share in his possessions to her daughter, who had married Count Albert of Habsburg and was the mother of King RUDOLF I.

In *Bavaria*, the Counts of Wittelsbach were among the greatest lords, and one of them, Otto, received the dukedom on the fall of Henry the Lion in 1180. His grandson Otto married the heiress of the Count Palatine, and after his death in 1253 a partition was made whereby one son received the Palatinate of the Rhine with Upper Bavaria (the *Oberpfalz*), and the other the duchy of Lower Bavaria. The Bavarian duchy had already been cut short in the east, in the interests of the house of *Babenberg*, by the erection of the marches of *Austria* and *Styria* into duchies in 1156 and 1180, the two being united in 1192–1198; and many lords, spiritual and temporal, held extensive territories. Among them may be mentioned the Archbishops of *Salzburg* and the Counts of *Andechs*. The latter were important less on account of their original property than by that which they acquired by marriage. They held a large territory in Franconia between Bamberg and the Vogtland, and, after the fall of Henry the Lion, Count BERTHOLD II was granted the *Tirol* and assumed the title of Duke of *Meran*[1]. He held also Croatia, Istria, and Dalmatia, and was moreover Count Palatine of Burgundy (the Franche-Comté). The central lands of the great house of Meran, which died out in 1248, extended nearly from Augsburg to Brixen.

[1] The style appears in 1136, and frequently from 1144 onwards.

[1] This place, which has accidentally been omitted in the map, lies a little to the south-east of the castle of Tirol.

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XXXVI

GERMANY IN THE LATER MIDDLE AGES (1273–1492)

XXXVI

GERMANY IN THE LATER MIDDLE AGES (1273–1492)

A COMPARISON of this map with that next preceding it brings into view three marked features: (1) the completion of the process of disintegration which had been long going on in the great duchies, partly in consequence of (2) the immense extension of the territories ruled by spiritual princes, and (3) the infinite multiplication of principalities and of minor lordships. The rank of prince of the empire was held by archbishops, bishops, and abbats holding scepter-fiefs, by dukes, margraves, palsgraves (or counts palatine), landgraves, princes (*Fürsten*), and counts holding banner-fiefs: these constituted the *Landeshoheit*. Below them stood the lesser counts, barons, lords (*freie Herren*), and knights. It was the weakness of the German monarchy in the century following the great interregnum which led it to adopt the precarious policy of elevating many of the lower class of nobles, with the result of creating a body of princes which reduced the authority of the king, or emperor, almost to impotence. Thus *Guelders* was made a duchy in 1339; *Jülich* a margraviate in 1336, a duchy in 1357: and the two were united in 1393. *Mecklenburg*, in like manner, was made a duchy in 1348.

At the opening of the period King OTTOKAR II of *Bohemia* was the most powerful ruler in Germany. The death of the last Babenberg duke FREDERICK in 1246 had enabled him to become master of *Austria*, *Styria*, and *Carniola*; and *Carinthia* fell to him on the death of Duke ULRICH in 1269. But his refusal to recognize RUDOLF III of Habsburg, who was elected King of the Romans in 1273, led to a war which ended in the loss of all his possessions outside Bohemia and Moravia. Carinthia was granted to Meinhard, Count of *Tyrol*. The rest went to the sons of RUDOLF, and gave the house of Habsburg a definite place among the greater powers of Germany. Before this time the Counts of Habsburg had acquired the county of the *Zürichgau*, the landgraviate of *Upper Alsatia* (the Sundgau)[1], and the landgraviate of *Aargau*. The great inheritance of the Counts of *Kyburg* devolved upon RUDOLF III in 1264; and in the next generation ALBERT, elected King of the Romans in 1298, was Duke of Austria, Styria, and Carniola. When in 1335 the male line of the Counts of Tyrol died out, the duchy of *Carinthia* passed to ALBERT the Lame, a younger son of King ALBERT I, and the county of Tyrol, which had been retained by the heiress, MARGARET MAULTASCH, was bequeathed by her to ALBERT the Lame's son, RUDOLF IV, who united under him Austria, Styria, Carniola, Carinthia, as well as the old Habsburg lands, and was the first Archduke of Austria. In 1379 a partition of this vast dominion was made, and two lines were established, the Austrian and Styrian; the elder holding Austria proper (*Niederösterreich*), while the younger received the remainder (*Inneröesterreich*). In the meanwhile a large part of the earlier Habsburg possessions had been lost to the Swiss Confederation (see the preface to Plate XLIV). Leopold III, of the younger line, sought to connect his scattered dominions by the acquisition of a number of intermediate territories, including the *Vorarlberg* and *Breisgau* (1368–1386). He also obtained the office of steward (*Landvogt*) both of Upper and Lower Swabia, and annexed the city of Trieste in 1382. Leopold's lands suffered a series of partitions among his sons, but these arrangements were but transient: FREDERICK III, afterwards emperor, besides inheriting the lands of the elder Austrian house, reunited the whole territory except Tyrol, and this was bequeathed to his son MAXIMILIAN in 1496. From the election of ALBERT II in 1437 until the dissolution of the Empire in 1806 the title of King of the Romans was borne, with the exception of a brief interval in the middle of the eighteenth century, invariably by a prince of the house of Habsburg.

The importance of the house of Luxemburg (Lützelburg) dates from the election of Count HENRY IV as Emperor HENRY VII in 1308. His son JOHN married the heiress of *Bohemia*, Elizabeth, granddaughter of Ottokar II. *Upper Lusatia* (*Oberlausitz*) was acquired in 1324, and the *Silesian* duchies were made feudally dependent on Bohemia. The importance of this kingdom reached its height under the Emperor CHARLES IV (1346–1378), who annexed the margraviates of *Bautzen* (*Budissin*) and *Görlitz*, the city of *Breslau*, and the principality and county of *Glatz*, and made the Silesian principalities crown land. Besides these territories Charles obtained the northern part of the *Upper Palatinate* and the remainder of Silesia and Lusatia, as well as the march of *Brandenburg* (1373). *Moravia* and *Luxemburg* were, however, held by his two brothers, the younger of whom had married the heiress of Brabant and Limburg (united since 1288). Until this younger brother's death the three duchies were held together (1355–1383), but his widow surrendered Limburg to Philip the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, in 1396, and granted Brabant to the latter's widow Margaret in 1405, just before her own death. The final settlement of these arrange-

[1] A map showing in detail the growth of the Habsburg possessions on the Upper Rhine will be found annexed to an article by Aloys Schulte, published in the Mittheilungen des Instituts für Oesterreichische Geschichtsforschung, viii (1887).

GERMANY

in the

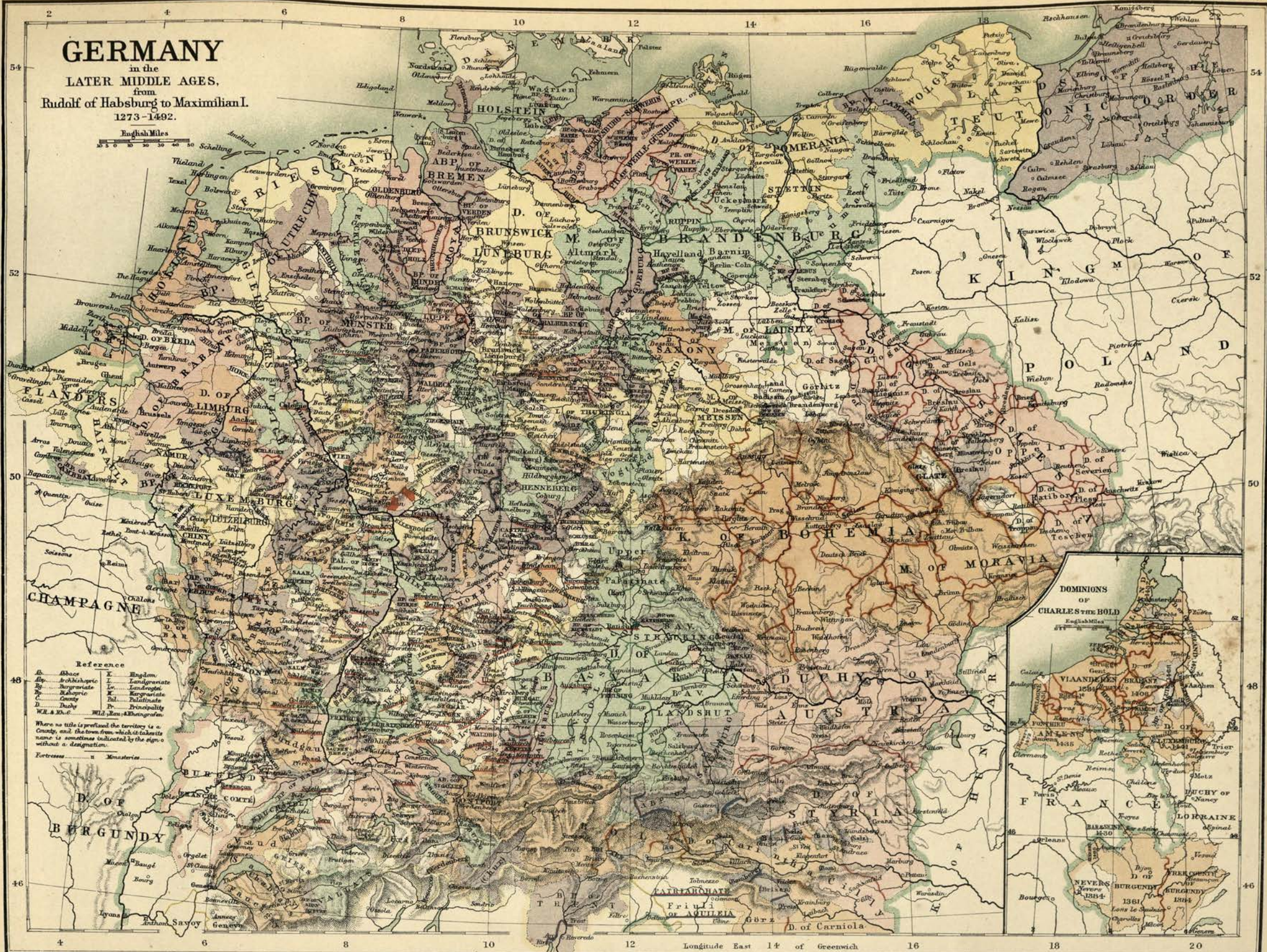
LATER MIDDLE AGES,

from

Rudolf of Habsburg to Maximilian I.

1273–1492.

English Miles


HOLSTEIN
BREMEN
OLDENBURG
FRISIA
BRUNSWICK
LUNEBURG
M. OF Altmark
POMERANIA
STETTIN
RUPPIN
BRANDENBURG
Hayelland
Barnim
Uckermark
M. OF LAUSITZ
SAXONY
MEISSEN
THURINGIA
HESSE
WESTPHALIA
BP. OF MUNSTER
CLEVE
D. OF BREDA
FLANDERS
LIMBURG
LUXEMBURG
NAMUR
HAINAULT
HOLLAND
ZEALAND
UTRECHT
GUELDRES
BRABANT
CHAMPAGNE
BURGUNDY
D. OF BURGUNDY
FRANCHE COMTÉ
HENNEBERG
Upper Palatinate
Lower Palatinate
BAVARIA
LANDSHUT
AUSTRIA
D. OF STYRIA
Carinthia
TYROL
PATRIARCHATE of AQUILEIA
Friuli
Görz
D. of Carniola
BOHEMIA
K. OF
M. OF MORAVIA
SILESIA
D. of Glatz
D. of Ratibor
D. of Teschen
D. of Oppeln
D. of Brieg
D. of Liegnitz
D. of Breslau
D. of Oels
D. of Sagan
D. of Crossen
D. of Saxon
Görlitz
POLAND
KINGDOM OF
Posen
Kalisz
Radomsko
Cracow
Wielun
Wloclawek
Plock
Pultusk
Ostrolenka
Johannisburg
Lötzen
Rastenburg
Mohrungen
Christburg
Marienburg
Elbing
Dirschau
Danzig
Rügenwalde
Stolpe
Lauenburg
Bütow
Colberg
Cörlin
Treptow
Gollnow
Stettin
Stargard
Pasewalk
Anklam
Torgelow
Wolgast
Greifswald
Rügen
Stralsund
Barth
Ribnitz
Rostock
Wismar
Lübeck
Hamburg
Lüneburg
Celle
Hannover
Minden
Osnabrück
Münster
Bremen
Verden
Oldenburg
Emden
Leer
Groningen
Leeuwarden
Harlingen
Texel
Vlieland
Amsterdam
Haarlem
Leyden
The Hague
Rotterdam
Dordrecht
Utrecht
Arnhem
Nimeguen
Zutphen
Deventer
Kampen
Zwolle
Enschede
Coesfeld
Wesel
Cleves
Emmerich
Duisburg
Düsseldorf
Cologne
Aachen
Liège
Namur
Mons
Valenciennes
Cambrai
Arras
Douay
Lille
Tournay
Ghent
Bruges
Ostend
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Gravelines
Dieppe
Rouen
Abbeville
Amiens
Beauvais
Soissons
Reims
Châlons
Metz
Toul
Verdun
Nancy
Lorraine
Bar-le-Duc
Epinal
Vesoul
Besançon
Dijon
Autun
Chalon
Mâcon
Lyons
Orleans
Bourges
Nevers
Auxerre
Troyes
Sens
Paris
Meaux
Provins
Melun
Fontainebleau
Montargis
Gien
Sancerre
Bourbon
Moulins
Charolles
Geneva
Savoy
Anthon
Annecy
Aosta
Ivrea
Turin
Susa
Pinerolo
Saluzzo
Nice
Genoa
Savona
Ventimiglia
Milan
Pavia
Lodi
Cremona
Mantua
Verona
Brescia
Bergamo
Como
Lugano
Locarno
Bellinzona
Chur
Coire
Feldkirch
Bregenz
Constance
Basel
Strasburg
Colmar
Schlettstadt
Metz
Thionville
Longwy
Sedan
Rethel
Laon
Soissons
Compiègne
Noyon
Péronne
Arras
Boulogne
Calais
Gravelines
Dunkirk
Ostend
Bruges
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Tournay
Lille
Douay
Valenciennes
Mons
Namur
Liège
Aachen
Cologne
Bonn
Coblenz
Mayence
Worms
Spires
Heidelberg
Manheim
Frankfort
Hanau
Fulda
Eisenach
Erfurt
Gotha
Weimar
Jena
Naumburg
Merseburg
Leipzig
Wittenberg
Dessau
Halberstadt
Magdeburg
Brandenburg
Potsdam
Berlin-Cölln
Frankfurt
Sternberg
Crossen
Zittau
Görlitz
Lauban
Bunzlau
Liegnitz
Glogau
Sagan
Sprottau
Crossen
Frankfurt
Posen
Gnesna
Kalisz
Cracow
Wielun
Radomsko
Piotrkow
Sandomir
Lublin
Zamosc
Brody
Lemberg
Halicz
Sambor
Przemysl
Jaroslaw
Sanok
Krosno
Tarnow
Neusandec
Cracow
Oswiecim
Teschen
Troppau
Jägerndorf
Neisse
Brieg
Oppeln
Ratibor
Pless
Beuthen
Severien
Tost
Glatz
Königgrätz
Prag
Budweis
Pilsen
Eger
Leitmeritz
Saatz
Laun
Brüx
Aussig
Tetschen
Bodenbach
Leitmeritz
Melnik
Jungbunzlau
Kuttenberg
Deutsch Brod
Iglau
Znaim
Nikolsburg
Brünn
Olmütz
Prerau
Hradisch
Kremsier
Wallachian
Weisskirchen
Trentschin
Neutra
Tyrnau
Presburg
Raab
Komorn
Gran
Ofen
Stuhlweissenburg
Fünfkirchen
Essek
Peterwardein
Semlin
Belgrade
Mohacz
Agram
Carlstadt
Warasdin
Cilli
Marburg
Pettau
Radkersburg
Fürstenfeld
Gratz
Leoben
Bruck
Mariazell
Judenburg
Knittelfeld
Murau
Neumarkt
Schladming
Radstadt
Hallein
Salzburg
Reichenhall
Berchtesgaden
Traunstein
Wasserburg
Landshut
Straubing
Deggendorf
Passau
Braunau
Schärding
Ried
Wels
Steyer
Enns
Amstetten
Melk
Krems
Stockerau
Vienna
Neustadt
Wiener Neustadt
Oedenburg
Güns
Steinamanger
Kirchheim
Neumarkt
Ingolstadt
Eichstädt
Donauwörth
Augsburg
Memmingen
Kempten
Isny
Ravensburg
Lindau
Bregenz
Feldkirch
Bludenz
Landeck
Innsbruck
Hall
Schwatz
Kufstein
Rosenheim
Munich
Freising
Landshut
Dingolfing
Deggendorf
Straubing
Regensburg
Amberg
Sulzbach
Nuremberg
Erlangen
Forchheim
Bamberg
Coburg
Hof
Baireuth
Culmbach
Anspach
Rothenburg
Hall
Gmünd
Aalen
Ellwangen
Hall
Heilbronn
Wimpfen
Mosbach
Eberbach
Heidelberg
Manheim
Spires
Worms
Mayence
Coblenz
Bonn
Cologne
Aachen
Liège
Namur
Mons
Valenciennes
Cambrai

ments was effected in 1406. On Charles IV's death his great possessions were divided among his three sons, the second of whom, SIGISMUND, afterwards Emperor, became King of *Hungary*. The next generation saw the complete absorption of the dominions of the house: for Sigismund's daughter married King Albert II, and carried her inheritance to the house of Habsburg; while the heiress of the duchy of Luxemburg sold her lands to Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, in 1441.

It has been mentioned in the preface to Plate XXXV that the dominions of the house of Wittelsbach were divided shortly after the middle of the thirteenth century under the two lines of the *Palatinate of the Rhine*, together with *Upper Bavaria*, and of *Lower Bavaria*. The elder line divided the inheritance, when RUDOLF became Elector Palatine, and his younger brother, the Emperor LEWIS IV, received Upper Bavaria. The former was dispossessed of his lands, but his sons regained the Palatinate and a portion of Upper Bavaria (the *Upper Palatinate* or *Oberpfalz*) by a treaty with Lewis in 1329; and one of them increased his eastern possessions by the acquisition of *Neuburg* and *Sulzbach*. Not long after, a portion of the Upper Palatinate was sold to the Emperor Charles IV; but it was subsequently reunited with the rest. The lands of the house were divided on the death of Rupert, King of the Romans, in 1410, among his four sons, who founded the separate lines of (1) the Palatinate of the Rhine, (2) the Upper Palatinate, (3) Simmern and Zweibrücken, (4) Mosbach. The second and fourth soon died out; but the houses of Simmern and Zweibrücken, thus partitioned in the next generation, took an important place in later German history, since the head of the former line in the sixteenth century, and the head of one of the subdivisions of the latter towards the end of the seventeenth, succeeded in turn to the Palatinate of the Rhine.

On the extinction of the house of Lower Bavaria in 1340 the whole, excepting the Upper Palatinate, was united under the Emperor Lewis IV, who obtained also the disposal of the march of *Brandenburg*, where the Ascanian house had come to an end in 1320. This he granted to his son LEWIS, whom he married to MARGARET MAULTASCH, the heiress of the *Tyrol*. But Brandenburg, after passing through the hands of three brothers, became the possession of CHARLES IV (1373), and the Tyrol went (as we have seen) in 1363 to swell the dominions of the house of Habsburg. LEWIS also acquired the county of *Holland* by his (second) marriage with its heiress, and transmitted it to a younger son ALBERT, whose granddaughter JACQUELINE or JACOBAEA, wife in turn of the Dukes of Touraine, Brabant, and Gloucester, surrendered her entire dominions (Holland, Zeeland, and Hainault) to Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, in 1432. Bavaria suffered several partitions under the sons and grandsons of the Emperor LEWIS, and thus arose the four lines of *Ingolstadt*, *Landshut*, *Munich* (*München*), and *Straubing*. Of these duchies the last went at first with Holland; that of Ingolstadt was mostly absorbed by Munich before the middle of the fifteenth century; and Landshut at the beginning of the sixteenth.

We have incidentally mentioned the more important elements in the aggrandisement of the house of Burgundy from the time of Duke PHILIP THE BOLD, the fourth son of JOHN, King of France. A detailed statement of its successive acquisitions, by which it became possessed of nearly the whole of the *Netherlands*, will be found in the preface to Plate LII. An inset map shows the dominions of Charles the Bold, and here the names in the Low Countries are written in their Dutch forms for convenience of comparison [1].

It has been shown in the preface to the preceding map how the great Saxon duchy shrank into that of *Brunswick*. This was divided in 1267 into the two duchies of *Brunswick* and *Lüneburg*. The former was again subdivided; but the greater part of it was united with Lüneburg in 1388. This fell soon afterwards into the two lines of Brunswick-Lüneburg and Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel.

The new duchy of *Saxony*, small as it was, had already been divided before the date with which the present map begins: First *Anhalt* was cut off, itself to form three principalities, of which *Zerbst* and *Köthen* survived to the sixteenth century. Then Saxony fell into the two duchies of *Wittenberg* and *Lauenburg* (1261). The line of Wittenberg died out in 1422, and the electoral dignity was conferred upon FREDERICK V, of the house of Wettin, who thus added to his dignities as Margrave of *Meissen* (including *Osterland*) and landgrave of *Thuringia* (united since 1310) the title of Elector of Saxony. In 1485 a partition between his grandchildren, ERNEST and ALBERT, founded the two dynasties, *Ernestine* and *Albertine*, which have survived to the present day; Ernest holding the Electorate with Thuringia and Vogtland, and Albert Meissen. Osterland was divided between the two.

The successive changes in the neighbouring margraviate of *Brandenburg* have been already noticed down to the time when it passed into the hands of the house of Luxemburg. A new period in its history begins in 1415, when the Emperor SIGISMUND granted it to FREDERICK of Hohenzollern, burggrave of Nuremberg. By a constitution of February 24, 1473, the Elector ALBERT ACHILLES effected a division of his territories among three of his sons, whereby the march and electorate of Brandenburg was to go to the eldest, and the Franconian lands (*Ansbach* and *Baireuth*) to the two younger, a partition the principle of which was maintained down to the end of the eighteenth century.

It should be noted that in the map Imperial cities and the chief towns on Imperial domain are underlined in red [2].

[1] *'S Hertogenbosch*, however, has been accidentally spelt in German fashion.

[2] I have to regret the occurrence of several misprints and slight errors in the map, which are only in part excused by its extreme complexity; e.g. *Stromberg* is incorrectly underlined in red, and the name *Baireuth* is assigned to two places (the eastern one should be *Berneck*). In the small map appended it has not been explained that the orange line between the duchy and county of Burgundy indicates also the border between France and the Empire.

XXXVII

GERMANIA SACRA

ILLUSTRATING THE ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS IN THE MIDDLE AGES

XXXVII

GERMANIA SACRA

ILLUSTRATING THE ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS IN THE MIDDLE AGES

ALTHOUGH some of the western sees of Germany present an unbroken succession from a much earlier date, the mediaeval history of the German Church may be conveniently regarded as beginning with the great epoch of advance under the Englishman WINFRITH, best known as ST. BONIFACE, towards the middle of the eighth century. His work as an organizer of the ecclesiastical system, as distinguished from his earlier labours as a missionary, begins in Bavaria, where, in 739, he set up four bishoprics—at Salzburg, Freising, Ratisbon, and Passau. The death of CHARLES MARTEL in 741 enabled him to extend his system of diocesan and provincial organization, in close dependence upon the Papal authority, further westward; for Charles' successors, PIPPIN and CARLOMAN, were hearty supporters of Boniface's aims. Immediately afterwards he established the sees of Würzburg, Eichstädt, and Buraburg (near Fritzlar) for the eastern regions of Franconia; and a synod was called from all the churches of Austrasia. In 745 Boniface presided over a general synod of the whole Frankish realm, and he was himself appointed to the metropolitical see of Cologne, from which in 748 he was translated to Mentz, this city now becoming for the first time the seat of an archbishop.

From this time *Mentz* takes the leading place among the ecclesiastical centres of Germany. Its province included not only Franconia and Thuringia, but also Cologne and the lower plains of the Rhine and Meuse as far as the Frisian coast. Under CHARLES THE GREAT it lost Cologne and the western dioceses, but was compensated by the acquisition of the southern dioceses, in Alamannia, so that the province reached from the Alps to the Elbe. As the regions lying eastward of this river were gradually conquered from their Slavonic rulers or forced to accept German overlordship, they all, except those on the Baltic seaboard as far as the Isle of Rügen, were included in the province of Mentz even to the borders of Poland, where the new archbishopric of Gnesen was erected in 1000. But this immense territory was in course of time formed into two provinces entirely detached from Mentz. First, the see of *Magdeburg* was raised by OTTO THE GREAT in 968 into an archbishopric for the Wendish lands beyond the Elbe and Saale; and, secondly, the Bohemian kingdom, including Moravia, was in 1344 established as a new province under the archbishop of *Prague*.

Cologne, which from the early part of the ninth century had spiritual oversight of the sees of the Lower Rhine, of the Frisian lands, and of Eastern Saxony as far as the mouth of the Elbe, experienced little change in its subsequent history. In 1169 it acquired the diocese of Cambray, which had previously been subject to Rheims, but, on the other hand, more than three centuries before, it had suffered the loss of Bremen at the opposite extremity. An archbishopric had been set up at *Hamburg*, just beyond the confines of the province of Cologne, in 831, as a centre for missionary enterprise in the direction of Scandinavia, the whole of which was deemed to be ecclesiastically subject to it. But the dangerous situation of this outpost of Christianity became soon apparent. The archbishop had to seek a retreat at *Bremen*, and in 848 the two sees were united, Bremen being thus separated from the province of Cologne. In the tenth century Hamburg (as the see was still called) resumed its northern mission with success, but in 983 was again driven back to Bremen. At Bremen, however, the archbishop still endeavoured to exercise authority over the Scandinavian churches; but this was not very long maintained. The see of Lund secured a metropolitical position about the middle of the twelfth century for Denmark, including the southern point of Sweden. Trondhjem (or Nidaros) became the archbishopric of Norway, and Upsala of Sweden. Thus Bremen from aspiring to ecclesiastical supremacy over the north sank to the headship of a small province comprising only the coastlands on either side of the neck of the Cimbric peninsula. The rise of Mentz and Cologne corresponded with the expansion of the Church in the eastern and northern Teutonic lands; their final curtailment indicates its consolidation as a national factor in them. To the south-east *Salzburg* might have had a similar history, had not the early conversion of Hungary (about 1000), with a separate ecclesiastical establishment, cut it short on the east, while Aquileia was from of old firmly organized in the south. Thus the province of Salzburg remained nearly conterminous with the duchy of Bavaria.

The western provinces had necessarily no capacity of growth, and none of them, except Treves, could claim to be specifically German provinces. *Treves* lay partly on Franconian ground, but much more in Lotharingia or Lorraine, which after 925 continued German throughout the Middle Ages. *Rheims*, on the other hand, was almost wholly a French province, *Lyons* and *Besançon* mainly Burgundian. Lyons therefore became in course of time more and more incorporated within French territory, while the temporal rule of the province of Besançon was shared between the Empire, France, and the Swiss Confederation. The overlapping of jurisdictions shows very plainly how Church and State ran each its own independent course, and it is only in modern times that the ecclesiastical boundaries have been adjusted to the political ones.

The present map is based on that by Dr. Menke in Spruner's Atlas.

GERMANIA SACRA

illustrating the

ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS

during the

MIDDLE AGES

English Miles

0 10 20 30 40 50

Archbishoprics suppressed. Bishoprics suppressed.

Monasteries

THE GERMAN PROVINCES c. 752 Eng Miles

THE GERMAN PROVINCES c. 840 Eng Miles

THE GERMAN PROVINCES c. 1000 Eng Miles

Longitude East 12 of Greenwich

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XXXVIII, XXXIX

GERMANY DURING THE PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION AND THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR

LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

XXXVIII, XXXIX

GERMANY DURING THE PERIOD OF THE REFORMATION AND THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR

THE Reformation internally increased the independence and the disunion of the German States; the policy of France in the west, and the growth of the Habsburg power in the east, determined the external boundary. For selfish reasons the leading princes gave up to France in 1552 the three bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun —a concession confirmed by treaty in 1555, with a nominal and ambiguous reservation of Imperial rights. This was a basis for further aggression, and in the Treaty of Westphalia (1648) the Austrian lands in Elsass (Alsace), from Hagenau down to and including the Sundgau, were also ceded to France, although Strassburg with its sixty villages still remained Imperial: on the right of the Rhine, Breisach and the right to garrison Philippsburg were also given, along with the full possession of the Three Bishoprics: the ambiguity as to the exact relation of Elsass left the position indeterminate and shifting. The duchy of Bar had been joined to Lorraine since 1473, was ceded to France in 1659, but afterwards restored.

Franche-Comté and the Burgundian Netherlands were handed over by Charles V to his son Philip in 1555, and their separation from the Empire, already made in jurisdiction and finance, was thus completed (confirmed 1648). Switzerland had been practically independent since 1499, and was formally recognized as such in 1648. Constance, a free Imperial city, fell to Austria in 1548. The bishopric of Basel was a loose ally, the abbey of St. Gallen and the town of St. Gallen closer allies (the latter appearing in the Protest of Speier as an Imperial town), of the Empire. Basel, however, became a Swiss canton in 1501, and the others became allies of the Swiss Confederation.

On the east and north-east there were gains due to the secularization of the lands of the Teutonic Order and to the increase of Austrian power. By the Treaty of Thorn in 1466 West Prussia had become Polish, and East Prussia a Polish fief held by the Teutonic Order: in 1525 Albert of Brandenburg, the Grand-master, became a Protestant, and secularized the lands of his order into a grand duchy, which fell (1618) through a treaty of succession made in 1568 to John Sigismund of Brandenburg. In 1526 Ferdinand, brother of Charles V, was elected King of Bohemia and Hungary, on the death of Lewis whose sister Anna he had married, but this increase of territory was Austrian and not Imperial.

Saxony. Of the various states Saxony changed most. By the Treaty of Leipzig (1485) it was divided between ERNEST and ALBERT, sons of Frederick the Mild: thus originated the Ernestine and Albertine lines, to which at a later date the Elector Frederick the Wise and Duke George respectively belonged. The former line received the Electorate with the Electoral Circle (Wittenberg), South Thuringia, the Franconian and Vogtland territories, and Coburg: the latter received Meissen. The ecclesiastical foundations (Naumburg-Zeitz, Meissen, and Merseburg), the Osterland, and Pleissnerland were divided: much was held in common, and the division was so intricate as to render war difficult; the Ernestine lands being specially scattered. By the Wittenberg Capitulation of 1547 the Albertine line received the Electorate, the Electoral (Wittenberg) Circle, the Ernestine share of the Osterland, and other territories: Sagan (inherited and held since 1472), the Vogtland, and some towns fell to Bohemia. By the Treaty of Naumburg (1554) several districts—especially Altenburg and Neustadt—were restored to the Ernestine line, but Neustadt eventually became Albertine again (pledged 1567, acquired 1660): the Vogtland was pledged in 1559 to the Albertine line, and in 1575 became its property. The Elector Augustus († 1586) made other gains: Henneberg, on the extinction of its line (1583), was held by the Saxon houses in common and finally divided (1660); Mansfeld (1570) fell to the Albertines. In 1635, by the Treaty of Prague (confirmed by the Treaty of Westphalia), the two Margravates of Lausitz (Lusatia) and the administration of Magdeburg were granted to the Electoral (Albertine) line under John George I: on the death of his son Augustus, Magdeburg fell to Brandenburg, Saxony receiving instead four towns belonging to the see (Querfurt, &c.). In 1656 the line divided into four, but finally reunited in 1746 into the present kingly line. On the death of John Frederick I (1554) the Ernestine line divided into the houses of *Weimar* and *Gotha*, again often divided. A small map of Saxony is inserted in Plate XL.

Brunswick. After Magnus II († 1373) the main line had split up into *Lüneburg* or *Middle Lüneburg*, and *Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel* or *Middle Brunswick*, the former line (1569) again dividing into *Celle* or *New Lüneburg* and *Dannenberg*. The lines of Grubenhagen and Göttingen, of which the former became Protestant, were extinguished respectively in 1596 and 1463. That of Harburg, which dated from 1532, became extinct in 1642, and its territory was divided between the houses of *Calenberg* and *Celle*. From Duke Magnus II († 1373) were derived the great lines of *Lüneburg* and *Wolfenbüttel*. On the death of Duke Ernest in 1546 *Lüneburg* was divided. The elder branch, of *Dannenberg*, acquired (1634) Wolfenbüttel and Blankenburg, and is the parent stock from which the ducal house of Brunswick is descended. The younger, of *Lüneburg* (Celle), which became Protestant, obtained Lower Hoya in 1582, Diepholz in 1585, and Grubenhagen in 1617. *Calenberg-Göttingen* was inherited in 1635; in 1641 a division was made into *Lüneburg-Celle* and *Calenberg-Hanover*; and in 1705 these were once more joined together.

The old *Wolfenbüttel* line inherited Göttingen in 1463. In 1495 it was divided into the two branches of *Wolfenbüttel* and *Calenberg-Göttingen*, both of which remained Catholic (until Duke Julius, 1568–89), although the territory was mainly Protestant; they were reunited in 1584. In 1582 Upper Hoya was acquired, in 1593 the county of Hohnstein, in 1596 Grubenhagen, and in 1599 the county of Blankenburg. But the possessions of the house of Wolfenbüttel soon passed to its elder cousins. In 1617 it was required by Imperial order to surrender Grubenhagen to Lüneburg-Celle; and in

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1634 the line became extinct. Wolfenbüttel then went to the Dannenberg house, and Calenberg-Göttingen to Lüneburg-Celle.

The Hildesheim feud led to important changes. John, Bishop of Hildesheim, tried to regain some lost fiefs, but was resisted by the knights, to whom Eric of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel and Henry of Calenberg joined themselves. Henry of Lüneburg fought for the bishop. The war ended by the Treaty of Quedlinburg (1523), by which the bishop lost the so-called Great Foundation, keeping only the Smaller. By the Treaty of Goslar (1643) most of this lost territory was regained by the bishopric. By the Treaty of Westphalia, Brunswick-Lüneburg received the alternate nomination to the bishopric of Osnabrück.

Hesse. Since 1458 this line was divided into the two branches of *Hesse-Cassel* (or Lower Hesse) and *Hesse-Marburg* (or Upper Hesse); the latter house acquired by marriage in 1479 Katzenellenbogen and Diez, but, this becoming extinct in 1500, William II of Hesse-Cassel united the territories and handed them on to Landgrave Philip. On the latter's death in 1567 his four sons divided his lands into *Hesse-Cassel*, *Hesse-Marburg*, *Rheinfels*, and *Hesse-Darmstadt*. The first inherited Rheinfels (with most of Lower Katzenellenbogen) from the third in 1583; the Marburg line died out in 1604, and a contest for the succession between Cassel (under Maurice) and Darmstadt was decided by the Emperor in favour of the latter, which, although Lutheran, was on the Imperial side in the Thirty Years' War. But the part played by Hesse-Cassel led in 1648 to a re-decision: it regained lands which had been seized, and added to them all Lower Katzenellenbogen, Schmalkalden (inherited in 1583 on the extinction of the Counts of Henneberg, joint owners along with Hesse), and a great part of Schaumburg: also Hersfeld (held by Hesse since 1525, and from 1606 onwards administered by a college of the house). From the second marriage of Maurice of Cassel sprang the side branches of *Rotenburg*, *Eschwege*, and *Rheinfels*. The Darmstadt line split up on the death of George I in 1596 into the branches of *Darmstadt*, *Butzbach* (extinct in 1643), and *Homburg*. (The Hessian fiefs in Hoya, Katzenellenbogen, and elsewhere were much involved with Brunswick and Nassau.)

Bavaria. In 1429 there were three lines, those of *Ingolstadt*, *Landshut*, and *Munich*. In 1447 the Ingolstadt lands fell to Munich, and in 1503 the Landshut line also became extinct. Albert IV of Munich then would have united all the lands, but was opposed by Rupert of the Palatinate (son-in-law of George the Rich, the last of the Landshut line), whose sons in 1507 received the so-called Little Palatinate (Neuburg and Sulzbach) as a compensation for his claim. The Emperor also took Kufstein and some land on the Inn, Kirchburg in Swabia, and Weissenhorn. In 1628 the Upper Palatinate (that is, the part separated from the Nordgau in 1329 by the Emperor Lewis, and given along with the Palatinate of the Rhine to the sons of his brother Rudolf) was overrun by Bavaria, and by the Treaty of Westphalia was finally yielded to it.

Nassau. By the family treaty of 1255 this house (whose territory was greatly cut into by other lands) was divided into the houses of WALRAM and OTTO: the former (1355) split up again into Idstein (extinct 1605) and Weilburg, united under Lewis II: his death (1627) was followed by a division into the lines of Saarbrück, Idstein, and Weilburg. In the junior line John V (1475–1516), as husband of a princess of Hesse, contested Katzenellenbogen with Hesse, but the house received only little of the disputed territory (specially Diez, 1530, 1557): his brother Engelbert, who took the Nassau possessions in the Netherlands, founded that branch of Nassau; by marriage the Orange possessions came to this house (1530), and so was formed the important house of *Orange-Nassau*. A number of small branches divided the original Ottonian lands in Nassau, and one of them, the house of Diez, inherited the Netherland lands of William of Orange.

Anhalt. This house (descended from Bernard, son of Albert the Bear) was divided into many lines: *Aschersleben* died out in 1315, its territory falling to Halberstadt; *Bernberg* died out in 1468; *Zerbst* (1396) divided into an elder and younger line. The latter died out 1526; the former divided (1471) into *Köthen* and *Dessau*, administering Bernberg (after 1468) in common. In 1566 the Köthen line died out, and all the Anhalt lands were reunited in 1570 under Joachim Ernest. But in 1603–6 a fresh division followed into *Dessau*, *Bernberg*, *Zerbst*, and *Köthen*. Any gains of territory were small, but Hoym and Plotzkau were inherited before 1468 and some small pieces of territory in 1667. The part played by the house was greater than its territory indicates.

Brandenburg. By the *Dispositio Achillea* of Albert Achilles (†1486) the March of Brandenburg was to remain indivisible: in case of more than two sons, the Franconian possessions were not to be divided into more than two shares. Accordingly after him we have (*a*) a line in *Brandenburg*, (*b*) lines in *Ansbach* and *Baireuth*. The New March had been pledged to the house by the Teutonic knights (1454): small pieces of Lausitz (Lusatia) had been acquired: Cottbus, Peitz, and other places were held as Bohemian fiefs. In Pomerania the extinction of the ducal house of Pomerania-Stettin (1464) led to its being claimed by Brandenburg on the strength of a treaty. In 1472 Albert Achilles arranged a treaty by which he was recognized as feudal superior of all Pomerania, and future Duke of Pomerania-Stettin; while he was to hold the conquests made in the long-contested Uckermark. The frontier towards Pomerania-Stettin took its shape from his time, and by treaties in 1493, 1529, and 1571 the feudal supremacy was renounced for the succession. In 1482 Albert Achilles also gained Krossen (as part of Glogau, claimed by his daughter as widow of its last duke, †1476). Zossen in the south was gained in 1493, and to this the Elector John George added Beeskow and Storkow eastwards in 1571. Ruppin fell in 1524. Thus, although Albert Achilles had regarded the Franconian lands as the most important, the tendency already was to expand on the side of Brandenburg.

In 1535 Joachim II and John (of Cüstrin) divided the March: the latter, who took the New March, Sternberg, and the lands in Lausitz and Silesia, died in 1571, leaving two daughters, married into the Ansbach and Brandenburg branches respectively. Under these two princes Lutheranism was introduced slowly and with modifications. In 1551 the sees of Magdeburg and Halberstadt came to Brandenburg princes as administrators: by the Treaty of Westphalia the latter see and the succession to the former (as a duchy, which fell in 1680) were secured. A like secularization was applied to Brandenburg, Lebus (1553), and Havelberg (1555). In 1571, by the death of father and uncle, John George united all the Brandenburg lands.

The greatest gain from secularization was made when in 1525 Albert, of the Franconian line, Grand-master of the Teutonic Knights, erected the lands of the Order (Eastern Prussia, West Prussia belonging to Poland) into a secular duchy. On his death in 1568 his young and weak son Albert Frederick succeeded, after whom by a treaty made in 1569 the Elector was to inherit. Albert Frederick (†1618) left only four daughters from his marriage with the heiress of Jülich-Cleve-Berg, eldest sister of Duke William. The eldest was married to the Elector John Sigismund, the third to the latter's father: thus John Sigismund had a claim when the duke

died childless (1609). Rival claimants were (1) the Elector John George of Saxony, who was married to the youngest daughter of Albert Frederick; (2) the Count Palatine of Neuburg, and (3) the Count Palatine of Zweibrücken, sons of other sisters of Duke William. By the Treaty of Dortmund (1609), Neuburg and Brandenburg agreed to rule the disputed lands in common. The Treaty of Xanten (1614, renewed 1624, 1629, 1647, 1649) divided them: John Sigismund received Cleve, Mark, and Ravensberg, while the house of Neuburg received Jülich, Berg, and Ravenstein.

By a treaty in 1537 the succession to Liegnitz, Brieg, and Wohlau was acquired, although not effectively urged until the days of Frederick the Great. Thus a direction towards Silesia was taken, which claims on Jägerndorf (through the Ansbach branch) strengthened.

The two Franconian territories of *Ansbach* and *Baireuth* remained separate until the latter house died out in 1557. In 1523 the Silesian duchy of Jägerndorf was bought, and when George Frederick of Ansbach (who had inherited Baireuth in 1557) died without heir (1603) the old Franconian lands, along with Jägerndorf, passed to the Elector Joachim Frederick. The attempts of the latter's father John George to provide for his younger sons led after his death (1598) to a new family treaty (1603), by which the March, its territory, and its expectations (now including Prussia in immediate prospect) were to be undivided and go with the Electorate: Baireuth and Ansbach were given to two of the younger brothers (they were united in 1768): Jägerndorf was given to John George, a younger son of the Elector Joachim Frederick, but in the course of the Thirty Years' War was transferred by the Emperor to the house of Liechtenstein. It will be noticed that the dynastic policy of avoiding division of territory had been greatly helped by circumstances.

The Calvinistic inclinations of John Sigismund (†1619) and his son George William (†1640) weakened the state, and an undecided policy in the Thirty Years' War did so still more. Claims for anti-secularization and restoration were advanced: Magdeburg was given to an Austrian prince: Wallenstein was placed in Mecklenburg (giving Brandenburg what it had hitherto lacked, a dangerous neighbour). A claim made upon Pomerania, which from 1523 to 1625 was divided into Pomerania-Wolgast (extinct 1625) and Pomerania-Stettin (extinct 1637), was resisted, although the treaty-right was incontestable. The Swedes held part of Pomerania, and even the March itself was only freed from their presence by payment. By the Treaty of Westphalia, Western Pomerania (Wolgast) went to Sweden, Eastern (Stettin) to Brandenburg; as compensation for its claims upon the western part were granted the secularized sees of Halberstadt, Cammin, Minden, and Magdeburg (in succession).

Hohenzollern. This line (overshadowed by its greater offshoots) was divided (1576) into Hechingen and Sigmaringen; from 1558 to 1575 it had been united. In 1653 the rank of Prince was granted to its ruler.

Baden. In 1535 this was divided into *Upper Baden* or *Baden-Baden*, and *Baden-Pforzheim* or (after 1565) *Baden-Durlach*.

Würtemberg. In 1482 the county of Würtemberg was declared indivisible, and in 1495 Count Eberhard was raised to the rank of Duke. In 1519 Duke Ulrich was expelled by the Swabian League and his lands were pledged to Austria. In 1534, by the help of the League of Schmalkalden, he was reinstated (by the Treaty of Kadan), but until 1599 Würtemberg remained under Austrian suzerainty.

Oldenburg. In 1448 Christian, of this house, ascended the Danish throne, his brother continuing the line of Counts of Oldenburg. In 1526 the original branch (of Oldenburg) gained Delmenhorst from a side line, and in 1575 Jever, but died out in 1667, so that the possessions fell to Denmark, the king of which in 1460 had been elected Duke of Sleswick and Count of Holstein.

Palatinate of the Rhine. This house was divided into the old *Palatinate* (the Electoral) line and *Simmern* (from which in 1459 *Zweibrücken* branched off). Neuburg and Sulzbach were received from Bavaria in 1507. In 1559 the extinction of the old line left the Palatinate to Simmern. In 1569 the line of Zweibrücken divided into *Zweibrücken* and *Neuburg*: in 1614 Neuburg divided into *Neuburg* and *Sulzbach*. In the Thirty Years' War the Upper Palatinate was lost to Bavaria.

Among smaller houses, that of *Reuss* (Plauen) was in four lines, three of which were extinct by 1550; Plauen, the survivor, was divided into two, one of which died out in 1752. *Sponheim* (divided between Baden and the Palatinate) varied greatly: *Hanau* was reunited in 1642, inherited Lichtenberg, partly in 1481, wholly in 1560, and fell to Hesse in 1736. In 1559 the Counts of *Rieneck* became extinct, and the territory was divided among its superiors, Mainz, Würzburg, and the Palatinate. A strife arose in 1574 between the husbands of the three heiresses of the county of *Wertheim*, of which the Bishop of Würzburg made use to seize most of the land.

It is impossible to summarize on a map the fluctuating course of the Reformation, with its great results, in the North especially. The year 1555 represents its maximum influence; Calvinism working in from the south was a source of disunion. The counter-movement (largely due to the Jesuits) won back a large territory, especially in the ecclesiastical States (Fulda, the Eichsfeld belonging to Mainz, Paderborn, Hildesheim, Münster, Würzburg, Trier, Bamberg, Worms), and in the Austrian and Bavarian lands. Its success was marked by the Edict of Restitution (1629), by which all ecclesiastical lands gained by Protestants since 1552 were to be restored, and the treatment of many ecclesiastical lands called in question. But its operation was stayed by the events of 1631. The Treaty of Prague (between the Emperor and the Lutheran princes of the north, 1635) practically undid the Edict of Restitution: it left the Protestant princes all their mediate gains, and all the immediate territory gained before 1627. The Calvinists were not included in it, but internally the main religious and geographical results of the great war were already settled[1].

For the basis of the accompanying map the writer is indebted to the corresponding one in the atlases of Spruner (edited by Menke) and Droysen[2].

J. P. WHITNEY.

[1] States which were Protestant by 1555 are underlined in red; places affected by the Edict of Restitution are underlined in blue.

[2] By an unfortunate oversight the signs *Lg.* and *Lv.* have changed places in this Map, *Lg.* standing for *Landvogtei* and *Lv.* for *Landgraviate*.—ED.

XL

GERMANY AT THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA, 1648

XL

GERMANY AT THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA, 1648

THE Treaty of Westphalia (October 24, 1648) consisted of (*a*) the Treaty of Münster between the Empire and France, (*b*) the Treaty of Osnabrück between the Empire and Sweden. The Emperor represented the Catholic, Sweden the Evangelical princes. The distinction between the Habsburg and the Catholic policies (the latter best represented by Bavaria) had become apparent during the war and affected the negotiations ; religious differences, especially between the Lutherans and Calvinists, had helped the weakness of the central power and the dynastic jealousies of the princes in breaking down the internal Imperial organization: the admission of France and Sweden (on the west and north-east, where the frontier relations had fluctuated most) to a place in the Empire completed the process, but the effect of the settlement was in the south-east to consolidate the Habsburg power.

The advance of Protestantism was seen in the capture by secularization of the northern bishoprics (Meissen, Naumburg, Merseburg, Lebus, Havelberg, Brandenburg, Lübeck, Magdeburg, Bremen, Cammin), until by 1566 only Hildesheim of the northern bishoprics remained in Catholic hands. But with the failure of a second attempt by Gebhardt Truchsess to protestantize Köln in 1583 the process of secularization was stayed. This growth was, however, counterbalanced by the discord between Lutherans ('Evangelical') and Calvinists ('Reformed'): in the south, nearer Switzerland and confronted by the greatest sees, the latter made most way; their chief territories were the Palatinate (1560, with some change of policy), Anhalt (1596, although the Zerbst line returned to Lutheranism, 1644), Baden-Durlach, Hesse-Cassel (under Maurice), the duchy of Brieg and Liegnitz, and the March of Brandenburg (under John Sigismund). But there were many shades of opinion on the chief points of difference.

By the Religious Peace of Augsburg, Lutheranism (but no other Protestant belief) was allowed; all rulers were permitted to hold their faith, Catholic or Lutheran, and discontented subjects could emigrate freely. All secularizations of Mediate church lands before 1552 were suffered to continue, but by the Ecclesiastical Reservation any Immediate ecclesiastical prince becoming Protestant lost his position. The two difficulties (as to which Lutherans and Catholics differed) were (*a*) as to secularizations of Mediate lands made after 1552 ; (*b*) as to Protestant bishops elected as such. These questions were raised by the Edict of Restitution in 1629.

After 1555, from many causes Catholicism gained ground, e. g. in Bavaria (1557–97), Baden-Baden (1570–71), Fulda (1573–76), and in most of the southern and western bishoprics. Under Ferdinand of Styria (elected King of Bohemia 1617, King of Hungary and Emperor 1619) and Maximilian of Bavaria the reaction grew. The Jülich-Berg-Cleve succession did not bring on the inevitable war, but the uprising of Bohemia and other Austrian lands (1618) did. The rival election by Bohemia of Frederick V of the Palatinate enlarged the area of the war; the Upper Palatinate was conquered for the Emperor in 1620, and the Lower in 1622 ; the Electorate was transferred to the Duke of Bavaria, who also, in 1628, received the territory (previously promised to him). In Bohemia and the Austrian lands the Catholic reaction was enforced. Among the northern States, Saxony, in return for the province of Lausitz, took no part in the war, which soon widened ; the northern and western neighbours of the Empire now intervened in it, as did also Denmark, Sweden, and France (Denmark, however, withdrew in 1629, regaining by the Peace of Lübeck, all lands lost in the war, but giving up its lately gained headship of the Lower Saxon Circle, and its claims on the sees of Bremen and Verden).

Meanwhile in Mecklenburg, which the dukes were declared to have forfeited, Wallenstein (who had previously received Sagan and Priebus) was placed as duke (1629). In March, 1629, appeared the Edict of Restitution—an attempt to apply to the north the policy carried out in the conquered south—by which ecclesiastical lands seized by Protestants since 1552 were to be restored. This edict, which affected some 14 sees and 120 smaller foundations (see Plates XXXVIII, XXXIX), was carried out in Elsass, Franconia, and the Lower Saxon Duchy; elsewhere it was thwarted by the local powers, and its operation was everywhere suspended in 1631. Finally completing the policy of isolation begun by the Treaty of Ulm, 1620, the North German Protestant States concluded (May, 1635) the Treaty of Prague, by which Saxony received Lausitz; all Mediate lands were to remain as in 1552 ; all Immediate lands should continue for forty years as they were in 1627. This treaty (which followed the fall of Wallenstein) renounced the right of forming Leagues, except the hereditary alliances of Austria, the Electoral Union, and the old alliance between Saxony, Hesse, and Brandenburg, and was signed by Saxony, Saxe-Weimar, Mecklenburg, the Hanseatic towns, the Elector of Brandenburg, Brunswick-Lüneburg, and the whole Lower Saxon Circle. At the same time Saxony also promised to procure the restoration of the Duke of Lorraine, expelled (1633) from his duchy by France in carrying out its own policy. The main internal interests of the war were now over; external interests had more weight upon its course.

In the final settlement all these different elements appear: (*a*) the process of secularization, restricted to the northern bishoprics since the suggested Duchy of Franconia formed out of Würzburg and Bamberg had fallen through; (*b*) the treatment of the Palatinate; (*c*) the satisfaction of Bavaria, Saxony, and Brandenburg, and of Hesse, the last State to continue the war ; (*d*) the cession of land to France and Sweden—

GERMANY
at the
PEACE OF WESTPHALIA
1648
English Miles
Reference
Ab Abbacy
Abp Archbishopric
Bg Burgraviate
Bp Bishopric
C County
D Duchy
K Kingdom
L Landgraviate
Lv Landvogtei
M Margraviate
Pal Palatinate
Pr Principality
Fortresses
Monasteries
GERMANY
divided into
CIRCLES
Eng Miles
Reference
1 Austrian
2 Burgundian
3 Pal. of the Rhine (Elect.)
4 Franconian
5 Bavarian
6 Swabian
7 Upper Rhine
8 Westphalia
9 Upper Saxony
10 Lower Saxony
11 Immediate Imperial
SAXONY
and its Divisions
Eng Miles
Long. East 12 of Greenw.
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
HOLSTEIN
MECKLENBURG
PR. OF LUNEBURG
BREMEN
MÜNSTER
PADERBORN
HESSEN CASSEL
PALATINATE
WÜRTEMBERG
BAVARIA
AUSTRIA
SALZBURG
STYRIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
Prag
Brünn
Krakow
Posen
Bornholm
Seeland
Fünen
Rügen
Friesland
Drenthe
Zuyder Zee
Rotterdam
Antwerp
Brussels
Luxemburg
Metz
Nancy
Strassburg
Augsburg
Munich
Vienna
Bern
Basel
Zürich
Innsbruck
Trieste
Cologne
Frankfurt
Hamburg
Lübeck
Stettin
Berlin
Dresden
Leipzig
Breslau
Prague
Munich
Augsburg
Regensburg
Nuremberg
Wurzburg
Bayreuth
Coburg
Gotha
Eisenach
Hannover
Hamburg
Bremen
Lüneburg
Magdeburg
Wittenberg
Lausitz
Bohemia
Upr. Lausitz
Bohemian
Oxford: Clarendon Press
W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh

in the two directions where the old Imperial boundary had most fluctuated, and where rearrangements had been already indicated in the course of the war; (*e*) the religious differences; (*f*) the internal relations of the Empire.

Sweden received Western Pomerania, Wismar, Rügen, and a part of Eastern Pomerania, including Stettin and some land east of the Oder (large parts of these fell to Prussia in 1679 and 1720); as well as the secularized sees of Bremen and Verden (whereby it gained a voice in the Diet), the rights of the towns being reserved. The naval power of Sweden was thus brought not only into the Baltic, but into the North Sea also.

France received in full sovereignty the cities and bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun (practically possessed since 1552), with reservation of the metropolitical rights of Trier; also Breisach, the landgravates of Upper and Lower Elsass, the Sundgau, and the bailiwick of the ten Imperial towns of Hagenau, Colmar, Schlettstadt, Weissenburg (near Speier), Landau, Münster, Türkheim, Kaysersberg, Oberehnheim, Rosheim, together with the right to hold Philippsburg. This was an indemnification at the expense of Austria, and, owing to contradictions in the treaty itself, it was not clear whether the full sovereignty in these places belonged to the Empire or to France. This fact, and the scattered position of the places, led to further advances on the part of France.

Brandenburg received the eastern and largest part of Eastern (Further) Pomerania, and as compensation for its old treaty claims on Western Pomerania was also given the sees of Halberstadt, Minden, and Cammin, as well as Magdeburg on the death of its present Saxon administrator (which took place in 1680).

Mecklenburg received the bishoprics of Schwerin and Ratzeburg as compensation for Wismar given to Sweden[1].

Brunswick-Lüneburg, as compensation for losses among the northern bishoprics, received the alternate right to the see of Osnabrück and the foundations of Groningen in its territory, and Walkenried, near Blankenburg—a foundation given by Saxony in 1574 to Bishop Henry Julius of the Brunswick house, and by him to his father in 1583.

Hesse-Cassel was rounded off by the secularized abbey of Hersfeld, and also the south-east part of the county of Schaumburg, the rest of which fell to Lippe (the line of Schaumburg died out in 1640, and parts held as fiefs from Brunswick returned to Brunswick-Lüneburg).

Bavaria kept the Upper Palatinate (in its two parts separated by Sulzbach), together with the Electorate.

As a provision for the Elector Palatine a new (eighth) Electorate was created, and he kept territory on the Rhine.

The Swiss and the United Provinces were recognized as independent. The latter comprised Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Guelders (Lower), Overÿssel, Friesland, and Groningen; and parts of Brabant, Guelders, and Flanders were also ruled as common possessions ('*Generaliteitslande*').

All princes expelled from their lands returned with an amnesty: this affected Würtemberg, Montbéliard (Mömpelgard), Baden-Durlach, Nassau, Solms, Sayn, Isenburg, Waldeck, Hohenlohe, Erbach, among others. In the Austrian lands however, the amnesty did not hold good; only lands lost in the later period of the war were restored.

Among the religious provisions, religious freedom was confirmed to Lutherans and extended to Reformed communities. In place of the old 'reservatum ecclesiasticum,' January in the year 1624 was taken as a starting-point, all benefices to remain in the hands of the religion then holding them. In the Palatinate, Baden, Würtemberg, the year 1618 was taken: the reason why this year was not chosen throughout the Empire was that the changes in the Emperor's hereditary lands took place afterwards. If a holder of a benefice changed his religion he was to be deprived; the ecclesiastical conditions of any State were to continue in spite of any change of religion on the part of prince or people. In constitutional matters the Diet received further power, and its members were free to conclude alliances among themselves and with outside States, but without prejudice to the Emperor and Empire. Contrasted with the corresponding clauses in the Treaty of Prague (1635), that of Westphalia marks a decrease of Imperial power and unity.

Constitutionally and religiously the treaty was a crystallization of the tendencies at work. Austria sacrificed the Empire for its own dynastic and religious advantages. Brandenburg was encouraged to growth in the north-east by its acquisitions and its lack of seaboard. Even States which, as Brunswick-Lüneburg, lost more than they gained, welcomed peace and security. Added to this, toleration for different religions was gained even if the line between them was more deeply marked. But with its compensations in territory and its local sovereignties Germany now formed a separate State-system of its own, with a map altered in the north more than in the south. From one point of view France and Sweden with their right of interference guaranteed the stability of the internal system on which the stability of Europe came more and more to depend. But it was hard to say now what was the boundary between France and the Empire, or how that boundary was to be held. In this signal defect, in the complication of interests inside Germany, and further in the impossibility of balancing them, lay the difficulties of the future.

The Circles. The close of the Middle Ages left the central power weak, and the local States (with their scattered dependencies) practically independent. The growth of the Habsburg power gave a new support and new arms to the Imperial authority, and the duty of the Empire to provide for local order was recognized by the formation of *Circles*. But the maintenance of order had fallen more and more into the hands of local bodies who had attempted the task through Leagues: from these Leagues the Circles were naturally developed. Rudolf (1289) had appointed Conservators: Wenceslaus (1383) made a fourfold division of the Empire: Albert II (1438) formed four, and then six, for the maintenance of peace: in 1500 Maximilian established the Circles of *Bavaria*, *Swabia*, *Franconia*, the *Upper Rhine*, *Westphalia*, and *Lower Saxony*; in 1512 those of the *Lower Rhine*, *Upper Saxony*, *Austria*, and *Burgundy*: finally an eleventh for the *Immediate Imperial Lands* was added. Each Circle except the Austrian and Burgundian had its own Diet and a presiding State. But this attempt to supplement the weakness of the central power and give the Empire an effective constitution failed because (1) the Circles did not follow any exact territorial arrangements, (2) all the scattered possessions of any one power belonged to the same Circle, and (3) it was to no one's interests to work the new scheme. Its appearance, and still more its failure, marked the practical disruption of the Empire.

Saxony. The territorial arrangements shown in the small map of Saxony are explained in the preface to Plates XXXVIII, XXXIX.

J. P. WHITNEY.

[1] The secularized sees have the word *Bp.* underlined in violet.

XLI

GERMANY, 1648–1795

XLI

GERMANY, 1648–1795

THE object of the accompanying map is to exhibit the chief changes in the geographical distribution of the leading members of the Holy Roman Empire of the German nation from the Treaties of Westphalia in 1648 down to the Third Partition of Poland and the Treaty of Basel in 1795. The western frontier represents the configuration in March, 1795 (Treaty of Basel, April 5, 1795), that on the eastern as it existed in September of that year (Final Partition Treaty, October 24).

The Kingdom of Prussia. Full details of the acquisitions of the Electors of Brandenburg and Kings of Prussia (1648–1795) will be found in the Preface to Plate XLII. The chief additions may be briefly summarized: *Hinter-Pommern* (Eastern Pomerania), *Halberstadt*, *Minden*, and *Cammin* (1648); *Magdeburg* (1681), *Upper Gelderland* (1713), *Vor-Pommern* (Western Pomerania) to the Peene, with *Usedom*, *Wollin*, and *Stettin* (1720); *East Friesland* (1744); *Silesia* finally in 1763; *West Prussia* (1772), *Mansfeld* (1780), *Ansbach* and *Baireuth* (1790), *Thorn*, *Danzig*, and *South Prussia* (1793), *Warsaw*, *New Silesia*, and *New East Prussia* (1795).

Bavaria. By the Treaties of Westphalia Duke Maximilian of the Wittelsbach line was confirmed in the Electorship which had been conferred on him by imperial authority in 1628, thus making a new and eighth Electorate, to which the office of Arch-Treasurer in the Empire (*Erzschatzmeisteramt*) was hereditarily attached. Furthermore, the *Upper Palatinate* with the county of *Cham* was confirmed to the Bavarian Duchy, to which in 1661 *Rottenburg* was added. The War of the Spanish Succession brought on the Elector of Bavaria the fate which had befallen the Elector Palatine in the Thirty Years' War—the ban of the Empire and confiscation of his territories. It was not till 1717 that both his territory and Electoral dignity were definitively restored. Two small acquisitions, *Breiteneck* (1724) and *Hohenwaldeck* (1734), preceded the attempt of Elector Charles Albert to dispute the Pragmatic Sanction and Maria Theresa's right of succession to the hereditary possessions of CHARLES VI. Chosen Emperor in 1742, Charles Albert (CHARLES VII) died in 1745 without adding to the Bavarian Electorate. In 1777 the direct Wittelsbach line at Munich died out, and Charles Theodore of the Palatinate, under the Family Compact of 1774, united the Bavarian and Palatinate territories. Charles Theodore, who belonged to the Sulzbach line, had succeeded to the Electorate Palatine in 1742, inheriting at the same time the possessions of the Pfalz-Neuburg line, Jülich and Berg, the rival claim to which, in accordance with the Treaty of 1666, so persistently made by the rival Hohenzollerns, had been finally set aside. In 1777, then, the united Bavarian territories were composed of three groups: (1) *Electoral Bavaria* (*Kur-Baiern*), with the Upper Palatinate; (2) the *Rhenish Palatinate* (*Kur-Pfalz*), together with the principalities of Simmern, Lautern, and Veldenz; (3) the duchies of *Jülich* and *Berg*. In 1778 opened the complicated question of the Bavarian Partition. The Elector of Saxony and the Emperor JOSEPH II had raised claims to various portions of Bavaria; at the Peace of Teschen (1779) the Saxon claims were settled in money, and it was decided that in return for a complete renunciation of all Austrian claims the Quarter of the Inn (*Innviertel*), lying between the Inn, Danube, and Salza, should be ceded to the Habsburgs. A further proposed exchange of the whole of Bavaria to the Austrian House in return for the Austrian Netherlands and the revived crown of a Burgundian kingdom was checked by the formation of the Fürstenbund under Frederick the Great of Prussia in 1785. The gradual extinction of the various Houses of the Wittelsbach line was completed in 1799. In 1731 the line of Zweibrücken had died out; the territory and title passed to the Birkenfeld branch.

Electoral Saxony. As explained in the Preface to Plates XXXVIII, XXXIX, the dynasty in Saxony since 1485 had split into two lines, the Ernestine and the Albertine, to which latter the Electoral dignity was annexed. By the Treaty of Westphalia the possession of the two Margraviates of *Lausitz*, acquired by the Treaty of Prague (1635), was confirmed to the Albertine line. *Magdeburg* however on the death of its existing Saxon administrator was to pass to Brandenburg (which occurred 1681), only *Querfurt*, *Jüterbogk*, *Dahme*, and *Burg* remaining to Saxony. A further division of the Albertine line occurred in 1656:—the eldest son, John George II, retained the Electoral dignity together with the *Electoral Circle* (*Kurkreis*), the *Circle of Meissen* (*Meissner Kreis*), and *Upper Lausitz*: the second, Augustus, administrator of Magdeburg, founded the line of *Saxe-Weissenfels* (to which *Barby* fell in 1659); the third, Christian, founded the line of *Saxe-Merseburg* (with *Lower Lausitz*); and the fourth, Maurice, that of *Saxe-Zeitz* (with the circle of *Neustadt*), to which in 1660 came the share of *Henneberg* derived from the Partition with Hesse. These minor lines however died out in 1746, 1738, and 1718 respectively, and the territories which they represented were incorporated with those of the elder Electoral House. The political alliances and reverses which followed the acquisition (1697) of the Polish Throne by Elector Frederick Augustus (Augustus the Strong) and the conversion of the dynasty to Roman Catholicism do not affect permanently the geographical boundaries of his Saxon possessions; but it must be noted that from 1697 to 1763 the Electors of the Albertine line are also Kings of Poland. In Electoral Saxony but two changes require notice: in 1689 *Lauenburg*, on which by the Heritage Fraternity of 1671 the Albertine line had a good dynastic claim, fell to the House of Brunswick: and in 1697 Augustus the Strong definitively renounced his rights for a sum of money. Similarly the claims to portions of Bavaria (see above) raised in 1778 were liquidated by a large cash payment. In 1780 a small portion of *Mansfeld* was acquired.

The minor Saxon Houses. The history of the elder Ernestine line vested with the Duchy of Saxony is still more complicated. Divided into two main branches after 1648, ruling at *Weimar* and *Gotha*, it split up into numerous lines, the seats of the chief of which were, besides Weimar and Gotha, *Eisenach*, *Jena*, *Altenburg*, *Coburg*, *Meiningen*, *Römhild*, *Hildburghausen*, and *Saalfeld*. Five in 1795 are of sufficient importance in the later history of Germany to be enumerated, viz. Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Gotha, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Hild-

GERMANY
1648-1795
English Miles
10 5 0 10 20 30 40 50
Reference
Ab. Abbacy
Abp. Archbishopric
Bp. Bishopric
C. County
Gr. Circle
D. Duchy
El. Electorate
K. Kingdom
L. Landgraviate
M. Margraviate
Pr. Principality
Kö. Königsegg
Ko.Sa. Koburg-Saalfeld
Schw.R. Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt
Schw.S. Schwarzburg-Sondershausen
Note.—The boundary of the German Empire is shown by a deep red line.
Copenhagen
Malmö
K. of SWEDEN
K. of DENMARK
Seeland
Fünen
Bornholm (To Denmark)
Rönne
Königsberg
EAST PRUSSIA
WEST PRUSSIA
Partition of 1793
Partition of 1795
KINGDOM OF POLAND
Great Poland
Culmerland
Netze District
Cujavia
Mazovia
Warsaw
Posen
Danzig
Thorn
Elbing
Marienburg
Graudenz
Culm
Strasburg
Pol. Pomerania
Hela (To Danzig)
Rügenwaldermünde
Stolpe
Lauenburg
Oliva
Dirschau
Tapiau
Insterburg
Gumbinnen
Labiau
Memel
Tilsit
Ragnit
Tauroggen
Schirwindt
Lyck
Ortelsburg
Willenberg
Soldau
Neidenburg
Mlawa
Plock
Pultusk
Ostrolenka
Lomza
Brandenburg
Heiligenbeil
Rastenburg
Gerdauen
Angerburg
Lötzen
Johannisburg
Bialla
Prussian Lithuania
Memel
Kurische Haff
Frische Haff
Pillau
Königsberg
Tapiau
Wehlau
Gumbinnen
Labiau
Tilsit
Ragnit
Tauroggen
Schirwindt
Insterburg

burghausen, and Saxe-Coburg, whose territories corresponded to their geographical names[1].

Hanover and Brunswick. By 1648 the Brunswick line had split up into the two lines of *Calenberg* (with New Lüneburg) and *Wolfenbüttel* (see the Preface to Plates XXXVIII, XXXIX). In 1648 Lüneburg was in possession of Christian Lewis, Calenberg in that of George William. In 1665 George William succeeded to Lüneburg (resigning Calenberg to his brother John Frederick) and established his residence at Celle (or Zell), from which the duchy commonly took its name. In 1689 he acquired the Duchy of Lauenburg. The Treaty of Westphalia provided that the secularized bishopric of *Osnabrück* was to be administered alternately by Roman Catholic and Protestant 'bishops,' the Protestant invariably to be chosen from the Lüneburg House. When in 1679 John Frederick of Calenberg died, he was succeeded at Calenberg by his brother Ernest Augustus, already bishop of Osnabrück. By arrangement with the Emperor and George William of Lüneburg the dignity of an Electorate (the ninth) was conferred (1692) on the House of Lüneburg-Calenberg, and by a family agreement the new Elector was to be Ernest Augustus. Though disputed by the Wolfenbüttel line the arrangement was finally ratified in 1710. Elector Ernest Augustus died in 1698, Duke George William in 1705. The successor to the position of both was George Lewis, who under the common title of Elector of Hanover (strictly Kurfürst von Braunschweig-Lüneburg) united the Lüneburg-Calenberg lands: in 1714 he ascended the throne of Great Britain as GEORGE I. Further additions to Hanover were the secularized bishoprics of *Verden* and *Bremen* (annexed to Sweden by the Treaty of Westphalia) finally acquired in 1729, *Blumenthal* (1741), *Bentheim* (pawned to Hanover 1753, and the pawning renewed in 1783), and *Sayn-Altenkirchen* (1783, from Ansbach). The personal union between the crown of Great Britain and the Electorate, which lasted throughout the remainder of the period covered by this map[2], does not affect the geography of Germany. The elder Brunswick line had in 1643 transferred its residence from Dannenberg to *Wolfenbüttel*. Further acquisitions were *Blankenburg* (1651), *Lutter*, *Frankenburg*, and *Bodenstein* (1649), the city of *Brunswick* (1671), *Walkenried* (secularized 1648, acquired 1672), *Thedinghausen* (1679). In 1666 a younger line, *Brunswick-Bevern*, had been established, and this in 1735 inherited the Wolfenbüttel duchy, transferring the capital to Brunswick; hence came the title of the Duke of Brunswick of the Wolfenbüttel line which gradually passed into general use.

Würtemberg. The Treaty of Westphalia restored the title and ducal lands (lost in the Thirty Years' War) to Eberhard III. The direct line acquired *Wiesensteig* in 1705, and the Alsatian and Burgundian lordships of the kindred *Montbéliard* (*Mömpelgard*) house in 1723. In 1733 the line of *Winnenden* (acquired by Eberhard III in 1665) succeeded the extinct direct line in Würtemberg. Some further small acquisitions to the Montbéliard inheritance were made in 1748, but down to 1795 no change of importance needs recording.

Baden. The Baden House in 1536 had split into two lines, *Baden-Baden* and *Baden-Durlach*, the latter of which was restored in 1648 to its territories. In 1771 the Baden-Baden line died out and that of Baden-Durlach succeeded, thus uniting the whole territories in a single Margraviate.

Hesse. Since 1567 there had existed two lines, *Hesse-Darmstadt* and *Hesse-Cassel*, which in 1648 divided the disputed *Marburg* territory. Similarly in 1736 *Hanau* was shared, Darmstadt acquiring *Lichtenberg*, and Cassel *Münzenberg*.

Mecklenburg. Two lines were ruling in 1648, at *Schwerin* and *Grabow*. By the Treaty of Westphalia *Wismar* with *Neukloster* was ceded to Sweden; *Schwerin* and *Ratzeburg* were assigned to the Schwerin line, *Nemerow* and *Mirow* to that of *Güstrow*. In 1692 the Schwerin line, in 1695 the Güstrow line, died out; a complicated dispute ensued which ended in 1701 in the establishment of two main lines, *Mecklenburg-Schwerin* and *Mecklenburg-Strelitz*.

Oldenburg. In 1648 the tolls on the Weser were granted to the ruling House. In 1667 opened the strife which connected Oldenburg with the disputed duchies of Schleswig-Holstein. By the compact of 1649 the succession had been secured to the Danish sovereign and the duke of Holstein-Gottorp ruling in Schleswig and Holstein, who accordingly took possession of *Oldenburg* and *Delmenhorst*. Delmenhorst was pawned to Hanover in 1711, but Oldenburg remained an appanage under the Danish kings until 1773, when it passed to Paul the Tsar of Russia as representative of the Gottorp House ruling in Holstein: Paul ceded it to the Prince-Bishop of Lübeck, and in 1777 Oldenburg and Delmenhorst were raised to the rank of a Duchy in the Empire. At the same time (1773) Paul had renounced his claim on Holstein to Denmark, and it was thus once more united along with Schleswig (ceded by the Gottorp line to Denmark in 1721) under the Danish suzerainty.

Anhalt. In 1603 the Anhalt House had divided into four branches: *Anhalt-Dessau*, *Anhalt-Bernburg*, *Anhalt-Zerbst*, and *Anhalt-Köthen*. On the extinction of the Zerbst line in 1793 its territories were in 1797 divided between the three remaining branches.

Nassau. The various dynasties — *Saarbrücken*, *Idstein*, *Weilburg*, *Usingen* — of this house are amongst the most complicated of the German principalities. In 1795 three remained: Idstein raised to the princedom in 1688, Weilburg in 1737, and Usingen. The main Orange line, of *Nassau-Dillenburg*, died out in 1702: Mörs, Lingen, and Neufchâtel went to Prussia; Orange to France (1713); and the position of general heir was taken by the Nassau-Dietz branch, which in 1747 assumed in the Netherlands the position of the elder Orange line.

Of the minor German houses space merely permits to mention those of *Reuss* (of which the elder line was raised to the princedom in 1778, the younger in 1790); *Schwarzburg*, since 1681 divided into two lines, *Schwarzburg-Sondershausen* and *Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt*; *Lippe*, divided into *Lippe-Detmold* (1711) and *Schaumburg-Lippe* (1640); while for *Ansbach* and *Baireuth* reference may be made to the Preface to Plate XLII.

Alsace. The exact meaning of the settlement made at the Peace of Westphalia has been disputed, but it is now generally agreed that the wording of the clauses (especially §§ 73, 74, 87) in the Treaty of Münster was deliberately framed to bear a double meaning. What France gained geographically was *Breisach* and the *Sundgau*, the Administration (Landgrafschaft) of *Upper* and *Lower Alsace* (these in full sovereignty), and politically the Landvogtei over the

[1] For the detailed geography of the minor houses of the Ernestine line the student may be referred to the map on p. 29 of Droysen's *Historical Atlas*.

[2] See A. W. Ward, *Great Britain and Hanover* (1899).

ten Imperial Cities ('the Decapolis'—Mühlhausen, Münster, Colmar, Türkheim, Kaysersberg, Schlettstadt, Oberehnheim, Rosheim, Hagenau, and Weissenburg) with the districts dependent on them. From 1679 the Chambers of Reunion decided that the Treaty of Westphalia had really annexed all Alsace in full sovereignty to the French crown. By 1681 the Decapolis and Strassburg (indisputably a Free Imperial City) had been effectively occupied. At the Treaty of Ryswick (1697) Louis XIV ceded his possessions on the right bank of the Rhine and territory outside Alsace united under decree of the Chambers of Reunion. The recognition of Alsace as French legally dates from that Treaty, and its history belongs to that country until 1871. But it must be noted that in 1789 there still remained in Alsace various territories (Reichsstände) of the Teutonic Order, Würtemberg, Zweibrücken, Hesse-Darmstadt, and the bishopric of Speier, which still belonged to the Empire and over which the French crown was merely suzerain. The determination of the National Assembly of 1789 and of the French Republic to override the relations of these territories to the Empire was one of the subsidiary causes of the war of 1792, and the settlement lies outside the date of this map [1].

Lorraine. By the Treaty of Westphalia, *Metz*, *Toul*, and *Verdun*, seized in 1552, were formally ceded to France. In 1659 France acquired *Thionville* (*Diedenhofen*) from the Spanish Netherlands, 1679 *Longwy*, and in 1680 *Saarlouis*. In 1735 the Duke Francis Stephen was compensated with Tuscany, Lorraine passing to Stanislaus Leszczinsky for his lifetime, and after his death to be incorporated with France. This occurred in 1765. But it should be noted that in 1789 there were in Lorraine (as in Alsace) certain districts which were not under French suzerainty, but members of the Empire (Reichsstände), e.g. Krichingen, Austrian Lützelburg, Nassau-Saarbrücken, Nassau-Saarwerden, the county of Salm, and the possessions of the Teutonic Order (Deutschordensstand) and of the Imperial Knights (Reichsritterlicher Besitz).

Swedish Possessions. By the Treaty of Westphalia Sweden acquired within the Empire *Western Pomerania*, together with *Stettin*; the islands of *Rügen*, *Wollin*, and *Usedom*; *Wismar* and an adjoining district; and the secularized bishoprics of *Bremen* and *Verden* (but not the city of Bremen itself, which remained a Free City). To this was added in 1653 a strip along the right bank of the Oder, which was ceded to Prussia in 1679. By the Peace of Stockholm (1720) West Pomerania up to the line of the Peene, with Stettin, was acquired by Prussia; and in 1719 Bremen and Verden, as noted above, passed to Hanover.

The Free Cities amounted in 1789 to the number of fifty-one [2], large when compared with the six which survived the Peace of Lunéville, but much diminished when compared with the seventy-five in the matricular list of 1422, or the eighty-four enumerated in the matricular list drawn up at Worms in 1521. While the Suabian circle has the largest number, it comprises for the most part insignificant towns, and there are none in the circles of Austria, Burgundy, Lower Rhine, or Upper Saxony. Of the fifty-one, thirteen ranked as Catholic, five as 'mixed,' and thirty-three as Protestant. The diminution was due either to annexations by foreign powers, such as Metz, Strassburg, Basel, or to incorporation with neighbouring but German and imperial princedoms, such as Constance or Donauwörth. But of the fifty-one surviving in 1789 only fourteen have any real commercial or political importance, viz. Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen, Goslar, Cologne, Aachen, Worms, Speier, Frankfurt-on-the-Main, Wetzlar, Regensburg, Nürnberg, Augsburg, and Ulm. The period from 1648 onwards also witnessed the practical extinction of the once famous and flourishing Hanseatic League. In 1630 the majority of the members renounced their membership, and at the last Hansetag at Lübeck in 1669 but nine cities were represented, namely Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen, Cologne, Osnabrück, Minden, Brunswick, Rostock, and Danzig, and the League came to an end. In 1620, however, three, Hamburg, Lübeck, and Bremen, had concluded a special commercial union, renewed in 1641, which, though modified in its essential particulars, came to be also a political union, and survived even the formation of the modern German empire. (See the Preface to Plate XLIII.)

Ecclesiastical Principalities. The following prelates were represented in the Diet (Reichstag) in 1789 as ecclesiastical members :—

Archbishoprics. SALZBURG, *MAINZ* (Kur-Mainz), *TRIER* (Kur-Trier), *COLOGNE* (Kur-Köln).

Bishoprics. FRISINGEN, REGENSBURG, PASSAU, BAMBERG, WÜRZBURG, EICHSTÄDT, WORMS, SPEIER, STRASSBURG, BASEL, FULDA, CONSTANCE, AUGSBURG, TRENT, BRIXEN, CHUR.

Abbeys. BERCHTESGADEN, Sankt-Emmeran, Niedermünster and Obermünster (abbesses in Regensburg), WEISSENBURG, PRÜM, Odenheim, ELLWANGEN, KEMPTEN, STAVELO Salmansweiler, Weingarten, Ochsenhausen, Elchingen, Irrsee, Ursperg, Kaisersheim, Roggenburg, Roth, Weissenau, Schussenried, Marchthal, Petershausen, Wettenhausen, Zweifalten, Gengenbach, Neresheim (Heggbach, Guttenzell, Rothenmünster, Baindt, Söfflingen—abbesses), the abbeys of S. Ulfric and Afra at Augsburg, of Burscheid, and of Gandersheim.

THE GRAND MASTER OF THE TEUTONIC ORDER AT MERGENTHEIM. THE GRAND PRIOR OF MALTA AT HEITERSHEIM.

The prelates of the places printed in small capitals ranked as ecclesiastical princes and sat in the College of Princes; three, those of Mainz, Trier, Cologne, were Electors, and sat in the highest college of all, the College of Electors. The list does not include the numerous secularized bishoprics (such as Paderborn or Osnabrück) represented in the College of Princes, nor the secularized abbeys (such as Corvey).

[The student will find the following authorities useful :—FIX, *Territorialgeschichte des preussischen Staates* (particularly Beihefte I and II, separately published, 1886 and 1888); HIMLY, *Histoire de la formation territoriale de l'Europe Centrale*; FREEMAN, *Historical Geography*; ERDMANNSDÖRFFER, *Deutsche Geschichte vom Westphälischen Frieden*; H. VAST, *Les grands traités du règne de Louis XIV*; REUSS, *op. cit.*; STOKVIS, *Manuel de l'histoire et de généalogie*, vol. iii; and the introductions in the historical atlases of SPRUNER-MENKE and DROYSEN. For the bibliography see REUSS, and DAHLMANN and WAITZ, *Quellenkunde der Deutschen Geschichte* (ed. Steindorff).]

C. GRANT ROBERTSON.

[1] The most exhaustive discussion of the Alsatian question from 1648 will be found in Rodolphe Reuss, *L'Alsace au dix-septième siècle* (2 vols., 1897), which gives a full bibliography of the authorities, French and German. The student should also consult the detailed maps in the *Historical Atlases* of Droysen and Spruner-Menke.

[2] In the *Circle of Bavaria*: Regensburg.

Circle of Franconia: Nürnberg, Rothenburg, Windsheim, Schweinfurt, Weissenburg-im-Nordgau.

Circle of Lower Saxony: Lübeck, Goslar, Mühlhausen, Nordhausen, Hamburg, Bremen.

Circle of the Upper Rhine: Worms, Speier, Frankfurt-on-the-Main, Friedberg, Wetzlar.

Circle of Suabia: Augsburg, Ulm, Esslingen, Reutlingen, Nordlingen, Schwäbisch-Hall, Überlingen, Rottweil, Heilbronn, Schwäbisch-Gmund, Memmingen, Lindau, Dinkelsbühl, Biberach, Ravensburg, Kempten, Kaufbeuren, Weil, Wangen, Isny, Leutkirchen, Wimpfen, Giengen, Pfullendorf, Buchhorn, Aalen, Bopfingen, Buchau, Offenburg, Gengenbach, Zell.

Circle of Westphalia: Cologne, Aachen, Dortmund.

XLII

THE GROWTH OF PRUSSIA

XLII

THE GROWTH OF PRUSSIA

THE map is an attempt to summarize the chief features of the territorial expansion of the Electoral March of Brandenburg from the year 1415, the year of the first Hohenzollern Kurfürst, into the modern Kingdom of Prussia. To each successive ruler a distinct colour has been assigned, so that the acquisitions, in whatever part of Germany, of any particular elector or king can be distinguished; and, by leaving all non-Prussian territory untinted, the elaborate process by which the modern Kingdom has been pieced together, through nearly five centuries of patient policy, can be grasped at a glance. Three points must be first noticed: (1) Territories tinted grey (e.g. *Jülich* or *Jägerndorf*) are those to which the Brandenburg Hohenzollerns have laid claim, but which were not ultimately acquired in the form or extent of the historic claim; (2) the frontiers of all acquired territories are throughout those of the date of acquisition: to avoid confusion subsequent rectifications have necessarily been omitted; (3) it has not been possible to indicate (save in the Partitions of Poland of 1793 and 1795, shown by a dotted red line) losses of territory made good at a later period. In particular the complicated but temporary arrangements and rearrangements between 1803 and 1814, while explained in this preface, have been passed over in the map, and the student is referred for details to Plates XI and XII.

Since 1415 the growth of the Brandenburg House has centred round three clearly marked areas, finally consolidated into a single unified monarchy. These are: (1) The March of Brandenburg; (2) the Duchy of (East) Prussia; (3) the Lower Rhine. These areas, distinct alike in their history, races, languages, and institutions, require separate analysis and treatment, and it is not till 1701 that the further evolution of what then became the Kingdom of Prussia can be profitably explained as an organic whole.

I. The March of Brandenburg. The historical nucleus of the March, viz. the *Nordmark*, was founded by Henry the Saxon ('The Fowler') in 928. From 1134–1319 it was under the Ascanian Margraves, who added *Altmark*, *Mittelmark*, *Priegnitz*, *Uckermark*, *Neumark*, *Lebus*, *Upper* and *Lower Lusatia* (*Lausitz*). Under ALBERT THE BEAR (1138) it became the March of Brandenburg, and its Margrave ranked as one of the Seven Electors of the Empire (*Kurfürst*); from 1323–1373 Brandenburg was under the Electors of the Bavarian House, from 1373–1415 technically under the Luxemburg Margraves. Finally on July 8, 1411, the Emperor Sigismund pawned it to FREDERICK VI, Burgrave of Nuremberg and Lord of Ansbach and Baireuth. Frederick was seventh in descent from Conrad of Hohenzollern, who shortly before 1170 was made Burgrave of Nuremberg[1]. In 1248 Burgrave Frederick III acquired Baireuth and made the Burgraviate hereditary in his family (1273). In 1338 Culmbach and its dependencies (Onolzbach, modern Ansbach) were added[2]. Burgrave FREDERICK VI (1398) was thus ruler of a considerable territory when in 1411 he first became connected with Brandenburg. On April 30, 1415, the Electorship of the March was formally conferred on him, and after the ceremonial investiture at Constance (April 17, 1417) he ranks in German and Prussian history as FREDERICK I, first Hohenzollern Elector of Brandenburg and founder of the Prussian Monarchy. The Electoral March (*Kurmark*) of Brandenburg thus acquired did not include the *Neumark* (which had been pawned in 1402 to the Teutonic Order), nor the Bishoprics of Havelberg, Brandenburg, and Lebus, nor the two Lausitzes of the Ascanian Margraves. In 1437 (by the *Kadolzburger Haus-Vertrag*) Frederick's territories were divided; *Baireuth* and *Ansbach* were allotted as separate principalities, *Electoral Brandenburg* to Elector FREDERICK II, the *Altmark* and *Priegnitz* as an appanage to a younger Frederick. Between 1440 and 1608 numerous small acquisitions were made to the Kurmark. FREDERICK II added *Lychen*, *Himmelpfort* (1442), *Kottbus*, *Peitz* (1445), *Wernigerode* (1449), the *Neumark* (bought from the Teutonic Order, 1455); ALBERT ACHILLES, *Schwedt*, *Löcknitz*, *Vierraden* (1472), *Garz* (exchanged for *Bernstein*, 1479), *Krossen*, *Züllichau*, *Sommerfeld*, *Bobersberg* (1482); JOHN CICERO, *Zossen* (1490); JOACHIM I, *Ruppin* (1524); JOACHIM II, the secularized Bishoprics of *Brandenburg*, *Havelberg*, and *Lebus* (1548); and JOHN GEORGE, *Beeskow* and *Storkow* (1571). Berlin (founded in the thirteenth century) did not become the capital until the Electorate of John Cicero; previously Schloss Tangermünde on the Elbe had been the chief residence of the Kurfürsts.

During this period the following events materially influenced the later evolution of the March:—

(1) The 'Dispositio Achillea' of 1473, by which (*a*) partition of the Kurmark was forbidden; it was to pass undivided to

[1] In 1227 the Suabian branch of the Hohenzollern family was definitely separated from the Franconian. In 1529 the Suabian branch acquired the countships of *Sigmaringen* and *Vöhringen*, and in 1605 it split up into the two divisions of Hohenzollern-Hechingen and Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, which were raised to the rank of princedoms of the Empire in 1623 and 1638 respectively. In 1695 both divisions made a 'Heritage-Fraternity' of succession, failing issue, to the kindred branch of Brandenburg. In 1849 both princes ceded their principalities to the King of Prussia, the status of younger sons of the royal House being granted them. It was a prince of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Leopold, whose candidature to the Spanish Throne in 1870 was the immediate occasion of the Franco-German War. Hohenzollern in 1852 was made an administrative district of the modern Prussian kingdom. See Stokvis, ii. 116–117; Himly, ii. passim.

[2] See note 1 on next page.

THE GROWTH OF
PRUSSIA
1415 – 1890
English Miles
Note:– The extent of modern Prussia is indicated by the red line
All non-Prussian territory is either white or cream coloured.
Territory formerly but not now Prussian is indicated by red dotted line
Long. East 14 of Greenw.
Principality of NEUFCHATEL
Long. East 7 of Greenw.
GOLD COAST
Meridian of Greenwich 0
Long E. of Greenw. 5
Principality of ORANGE

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Oxford: Clarendon Press

the eldest son: (*b*) the Franconian territories were divided into two and not more than two—Ansbach and Baireuth. In default of male issue to any two of the rulers of the March, Ansbach, or Baireuth, the heir to the third was to unite all three under his rule. The 'Disposition' was subsequently confirmed by the Compact of Gera (1598). From these two settlements spring the elder and younger lines of the Culmbach Hohenzollerns[1]; but it should be observed that Elector ALBERT ACHILLES (1470–1486) ruled over the united March and the Franconian territories; and that from 1535–1571, in violation of the 'Dispositio Achillea,' John of Küstrin (younger brother of JOACHIM II) inherited as an appanage Neumark, Sternberg, and Krossen, which were incorporated in 1571 with the Kurmark by JOHN GEORGE.

(2) By 1548 Brandenburg, with territorial profit to its rulers, had become Protestant, and the Electors henceforth were among the leaders of the Lutheran Party.

(3) Two 'Heritage Fraternities' (*Erbverbrüderungen*) of great importance for the future were now established, viz. (*a*) that at Grimnitz (1529, reconfirmed 1571), by which, failing heirs to the Pomeranian House, Brandenburg was to inherit all Pomerania; (*b*) that in 1537 with the Duke of Liegnitz, Wohlau, and Brieg, in Silesia, which founded a similar claim of succession, strengthened in this case by a double marriage (1548) between the two Houses. The compact was however cancelled by FERDINAND (afterwards Emperor Ferdinand I) in 1546, though the validity of his act was persistently disputed by the Brandenburg Electors.

(4) The Silesian claims were increased in 1524 by the acquisition of the Duchy of *Jägerndorf*, *Beuthen*, and *Oderberg*, purchased by George the Pious, Margrave of Ansbach[2], which passed in 1607 to John George, second son of the Elector JOACHIM FREDERICK.

(5) The Hohenzollern connexion with *Prussia* dates from 1511.

(6) The claim to the *Cleve-Jülich* territory is founded on JOHN SIGISMUND'S marriage with Anna, eldest daughter of Maria Eleonore, eldest daughter of William, Duke of Cleve.

The Peace of Westphalia (1648) made the next important addition to the March. In 1637 the Pomeranian claims of 1529 had become good, but on the extinction of the line of Boguslaw XIV, Pomerania being in Swedish hands, the 'Great Elector,' FREDERICK WILLIAM, had to be content with *Further Pomerania* (excepting Stettin and a two-mile strip on the right bank of the Oder, ceded in 1653) and, as compensation, *Halberstadt*, *Minden*, *Kammin*, *Magdeburg*, *Jüterbogk*, *Dalmer*, and the *Saalkreis*. Further acquisitions of FREDERICK WILLIAM were *Lauenburg* (in Pomerania) and *Bütow* (1657), *Draheim* (1668), *Regenstein* (1670), and, by the peace of St. Germain-en-Laye (1679), the strip along the Oder referred to above, with full possession of the secularized *Archbishopric of Magdeburg* (1680) and *Burg* (1687).

(1) Between 1683 and 1687 a settlement was made on the *Gold Coast*, which, however, was ceded at the Peace of Stockholm (1720) to the Dutch.

(2) The extinction of the ruling line at *Liegnitz* (1675) revived the Erbverbrüderung of 1537. In 1686 Brandenburg accepted *Schwiebus* and renounced its claims. Schwiebus was restored by FREDERICK III (King FREDERICK I) in 1694, and the original claim in its entirety reasserted.

Further small acquisitions by FREDERICK III were *Quedlinburg* (1697), *Mörs* and *Lingen* from the Orange principality (1702), *Geyern* (1708, ceded to Ansbach in 1729), *Neufchâtel*[1] (1707). In 1701 the Electorate became a monarchy.

II. The Duchy of Prussia. Prussia was converted and Germanized by the Teutonic Order, with which the Burgraves of Nuremberg from 1250 onwards were closely connected. In 1466 the decay of the Order and the power of Poland brought about a division at the peace of Thorn. West Prussia and Ermeland were ceded to Poland; East Prussia was constituted as an ecclesiastical Duchy and fief vested ex officio in the Grand Master (*Hochmeister*) of the Order. The Neumark, as pointed out above, was recovered by the Electors of Brandenburg from the Teutonic Order. In 1511 Albert of Hohenzollern (of the Ansbach line) became Grand Master; and he in 1525 converted the Duchy into a secular fief for himself and his heirs. The succession to Albert, failing male heirs of his house, accordingly became a prime object of Brandenburg policy. The stages are instructive. In 1569 Elector JOACHIM II obtained co-infeofment (*Mitbelehnung*) for himself and his heirs during the minority of the young duke Albert Frederick; in 1605 Elector JOACHIM FREDERICK became Regent and married Eleonore, younger sister of the imbecile duke, and in 1618 JOHN SIGISMUND, who had married Anna, the duke's elder sister, succeeded to the Duchy as a Polish fief. Finally, in 1660, the Great Elector FREDERICK WILLIAM effected at the Peace of Oliva the abolition of Polish suzerainty, and was crowned in 1663 as sovereign *Duke of Prussia*[2]. Brandenburg policy now aimed at securing the Baltic littoral and the control of the river systems in West and East

[1] By the *Dispositio Achillea* (1473) the Franconian princedoms (*Fürstentümer*) of Ansbach and Baireuth were separated from the Electoral March, and fell in 1486 to the younger sons of Elector ALBERT ACHILLES, Frederick and Sigismund, the brothers of Elector JOHN CICERO; Ansbach to Frederick, Baireuth to Sigismund. On Sigismund's death, Frederick in 1495 inherited Baireuth, and he was the founder of the elder Culmbach line. His son Albert was Hochmeister of the Teutonic Order and Duke of Prussia. The line died out in 1603, and by the agreement of Gera (1598) the Ansbach-Baireuth territories reverted to Elector JOHN GEORGE (1571–1598), or his descendants. JOHN GEORGE settled them by will on his two sons, Christian (Margrave of Baireuth, 1603) and Joachim Ernest (Margrave of Ansbach, 1603–1625). These two are the founders of the younger Culmbach line. The sixth Margrave of Baireuth, Frederick, married Wilhelmina, sister of FREDERICK THE GREAT. The line died out in 1769, and Baireuth then fell to the Margraves of Ansbach. From the Ansbach line came Queen Caroline of England, wife of George II, and the ninth Margrave of Ansbach-Baireuth, Christian Frederick (1757–1806), died at Hammersmith, near London, in 1806. By arrangement in 1791 with King FREDERICK WILLIAM III of Prussia his territories had lapsed to Prussia, and been incorporated in 1792. *Geyern* had been ceded in 1729, *Limburg* and *Speckfeld* (acquired by Prussia in 1712) ceded in 1742. In 1806 Ansbach was yielded to France, Baireuth was lost by the Treaty of Tilsit (1807); and neither was included in the territories recovered by the settlement in 1815. They now form part of the kingdom of Bavaria. See Carlyle, ii. 7, iii. 5.

[2] His son GEORGE FREDERICK inherited Ansbach and Baireuth, and with much difficulty Jägerndorf (Ratibor and Oppeln being secured by the Empire). On his death in 1603 Jägerndorf went to Elector JOACHIM FREDERICK, who settled it on his second son JOHN GEORGE, who, supporting the claim of the Elector Palatine to the Bohemian crown, was put to the Ban of the Empire, and declared to have forfeited life and lands. Jägerndorf was seized by the Emperor Ferdinand II, and remained a Habsburg fief till the time of King FREDERICK II, when its partial reversion to the House of Hohenzollern was established by the Peace of Hubertusburg (1763). See Carlyle, i, passim; Stokvis, iii.

[1] NEUFCHÂTEL, to which Valangin was joined in 1592, passed to the Brandenburg House in 1707, FREDERICK I succeeding as son of Louisa of Orange, to whom William III had transferred his rights in 1694. In 1806 Neufchâtel was ceded to France, but restored to Prussia in 1815 under remarkable conditions. Neufchâtel became a canton in the republican Swiss Confederation, with the King of Prussia as its head and prince, the only canton without a republican constitution. In 1848 a republic was proclaimed, and finally in 1857 the King of Prussia renounced his sovereign rights, retaining however the title of Prince of Neufchâtel, which was dropped in the official designation of the Emperor's titles in the Cabinet Order of 1873. Neufchâtel is therefore now a republican member of the Swiss Confederation, to which it had belonged since 1648.

[2] It should be noted that in 1656 Sweden, in the Treaty of Labiau, recognized Frederick William as independent sovereign of East Prussia *and* Ermeland, and that Ermeland was ceded to Poland by the Treaty of Wehlau (1657) as the condition of the renunciation of Polish suzerainty over East Prussia. Ermeland was therefore actually in the possession of Brandenburg between November 20, 1656, and September 19, 1657.

Prussia, so that *Danzig* became, like Stettin and Stralsund, the strategic goal in the north. In 1691 *Tauroggen* and *Serrey* were acquired, and in 1701 the Prussian duke assumed a royal crown. This revolution was marked by Frederick's coronation at Königsberg (founded by Ottokar of Bohemia in 1255) on January 18, 1701, and by the foundation of the greatest of Prussian orders, that of the Black Eagle. But though Prussia, acquired 200 years after Brandenburg, gives the Royal title to the new kingdom, the Electoral Berlin remains the capital because of the Hohenzollern possessions on the Rhine.

III. The Rhenish Territories. These date from the claim of Elector JOHN SIGISMUND to succeed to the principalities —*Cleve, Jülich, Berg, Mark, Ravensberg, Ravenstein, Winendael, Breskesand*—of the Duke of Cleve, who had made, failing heirs male, Maria Eleonore and her heirs the inheritors. John Sigismund had married Anna, Maria Eleonore's elder daughter. Of the other claimants, the most important was the Count Palatine of Neuburg, in virtue of his wife, younger sister of Maria Eleonore[1]. The duchies were first governed jointly by the two claimants: then in 1614 the agreement of Xanten provisionally allotted Jülich and Berg to Pfalz-Neuburg; in 1624 Elector GEORGE WILLIAM renounced Ravenstein; and in 1666 a final division was made, Brandenburg obtaining *Cleve, Mark, Ravensberg*, and *Herford*, to which were added in 1707 *Tecklenburg* and *Rheda*, and in 1713 *Spanish Guelderland* (*Obergeldern*).

IV. The Kingdom of Prussia. (1) **1713–1795.** During this period large and important acquisitions were made. FREDERICK WILLIAM I, by the Peace of Stockholm (1720), recovered from Sweden *Stettin, Damm* and *Gollnow, Usedom* and *Wollin*, and *Vorpommern*, lying between the Oder and the Peene, thereby securing one of the great commercial arteries of North Germany, and two-thirds of the Pomeranian territory allotted at Grimnitz (1529), which Swedish arms had rendered null. FREDERICK II, the Great, in 1740 revived the complicated and disputed Silesian claims, which at the close of the Seven Years' War were 'paid off with compound interest' at the Peace of Hubertusburg (1763), Austria ceding *Schwiebus, Upper* and *Lower Silesia, Katschen* and *Glatz*. But, as the map shows, Jägerndorf was not obtained in the form of the historic claim. Furthermore were added, in 1744 *East Friesland*, in 1780 *Mansfeld* and *Schraplau*, and in 1772 the territory awarded by the First Partition of Poland, viz. *Polish* or *West Prussia, Ermeland, Kulmerland*, and the *Netze District*. But though the two great strategic centres—*Danzig* and *Thorn*—were not yet absorbed, the altered title of the monarchy—'*King of*,' not as hitherto '*King in* Prussia,' was fully justified. Under FREDERICK WILLIAM II followed the Second and Third Partitions of Poland, that of 1793 allotting *South Prussia* together with *Danzig* and *Thorn*, that of 1795 *New East Prussia* and *New Silesia* along with *Serrey*[2]. These additions mark the extreme but temporary extension of Prussia eastwards[3].

(2) **1795–1815.** Westwards by the Treaty of Basle a reverse process began, Prussia ceding to France all territory on the left bank of the Rhine. As compensation in 1803 (*Reichsdeputationsrezess*) she acquired *Hildesheim, Paderborn, Erfurt, Eichsfeld, Herford, Quedlinburg, Elten, Essen, Werden, Münster*, the western half of the Bishopric of that town, and the imperial cities of *Mühlhausen, Nordhausen*, and *Goslar*. In 1806 Cleve, Ansbach[1], and Neufchâtel were ceded to France, and as compensation *Hanover* and *Lauenburg* were awarded to Prussia, but only for a time; for in 1807 the monarchy was dismembered by the Treaty of Tilsit. Prussia now lost (*a*) all its possessions between Rhine and Elbe; (*b*) Kottbus and Peitz; (*c*) South Prussia, New East Prussia, Kulmerland save Graudenz; (*d*) the city and district of Thorn. For a time the capital was transferred from Berlin to Königsberg.

(3) **1815–1871.** The reconstitution of Prussia was determined by the Congress of Vienna and the second Peace of Paris (Nov. 20, 1815), by which, to omit details, Prussia gained (*a*) in the east, its share in the first two Partitions of Poland with Danzig and Posen; (*b*) in Central Germany, Swedish Pomerania and Rügen, the Altmark, the larger half of the kingdom of Saxony, and portions of Thuringia; (*c*) on the Rhine Jülich, Berg, Trier, Aachen, Cologne, and part of the Napoleonic kingdom of Westphalia—all of the highest commercial importance. Prussia was thus established as the great Northern German state, and was made the guardian of the Lower Rhine from Bingen to Elten and of the Mosel from Trier to Coblenz. The 'historic mission' to champion purely German interests as against France and cosmopolitan Austria entered on a new phase which decided the policy of Prussia in the nineteenth century. The new order in Germany is signalized by the German *Zollverein* of 1834. Between 1815 and 1864 three small acquisitions were made: in 1834 *Lichtenberg* (between Trier and Rhenish Bavaria); in 1849 the historic cradle of the ruling house, *Hohenzollern* and *Sigmaringen*[2]; and in 1853 the harbour of *Wilhelmshaven*. Three wars determine the position of Prussia as it is to-day: (*a*) the Danish War of 1864, from which comes *Lauenburg* on the lower Elbe (which was made a personal appanage of the King of Prussia in 1867, and incorporated with Prussia in 1876) and the claim on Schleswig-Holstein (raised in 1848); (*b*) the War of 1866 with Austria and its German allies, by which Austria abandoned all claims on *Schleswig-Holstein* (incorporated January 12, 1867) and Prussia annexed *Hanover, East Friesland*, the *Electorate of Hesse* (*Kur-Hessen*), *Nassau*, part of the *Grand Duchy of Hesse, Hesse-Homburg, Alt-Löbnitz, Frankfurt-on-the-Main*, and *Orb*; (*c*) the Franco-German War of 1870–1871, which resulted in no direct territorial gains to Prussia, but her ruler became President of the new German Empire, with its capital at Berlin, and was given a marked preponderance in the imperial constitution, the dignity of German Emperor being made hereditary in the Prussian monarchy. Hence the title to-day of the Prussian sovereign is 'King *of* Prussia and Emperor *in* Germany' (*König von Preussen und Kaiser in Deutschland*).

(4) **Since 1871.** The island of *Heligoland* (which became an English possession in 1807) was ceded by Great Britain to the German Empire in 1891, and since that date has been incorporated in the Prussian administrative province of Schleswig-Holstein.

C. GRANT ROBERTSON.

[1] See Carlyle, iii. 9 and 13; Droysen, ii, pt. 2, 401 et seq.

[2] Serrey and Tauroggen had been ceded in 1793, but Tauroggen was not recovered in 1795.

[3] See on the Partitions A. Sorel, *La Question d'Orient dans le xviiime Siècle.*

[1] See note on preceding page.

[2] See the first note to this preface.

[AUTHORITIES. The student may refer especially to Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*, vol. i, Bks. ii and iii; Himly, *La Formation Territoriale de l'Europe Centrale*, vol. ii; Freeman, *Historical Geography of Europe*; Stokvis, *Manuel de l'Histoire et de Généalogie*, vol. iii; Fix, *Territorial-Geschichte des brandenburgisch-preussischen Staates*; Droysen, *Geschichte der Preussischen Politik*; Schade, *Atlas zur Geschichte des Preussischen Staates*; and the Introduction to the Historical Atlases of Spruner-Menke and Droysen. For the more modern period see Seeley, *Stein*; Hertslet, *The Map of Europe by Treaty*, vol. i; Marten et Cussy, *Recueil de Traités*, vol. i; J. W. Headlam, *Bismarck*.]

XLIII

THE FORMATION OF THE MODERN GERMAN EMPIRE

XLIII

THE FORMATION OF THE MODERN GERMAN EMPIRE

THE object of this map is to explain the main changes in the political configuration of Germany during the nineteenth century, and to show the extent and divisions of the modern German Empire.

The German Confederation (*Deutscher Bund*), **1815–1866.** The reconstruction of Germany on the downfall of Napoleon was summed up in the Congress and Treaties of Vienna. By the Act of June 8, 1815 (Deutsche Bundesakte), further defined by the Act of June 9, 1815 (Schlussakte), and completed by the Compact of June 8, 1820, the German Confederation was called into existence, which gave to Germany a unity based on a loosely built federal constitution and the participation in that constitution of specified sovereign federated States. These were thirty-nine in number, viz. Austria (i.e. for her German possessions[1]—the archduchy of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Krain, Friuli, Trieste, Tirol and Vorarlberg, Salzburg, Bohemia, Moravia, and Austrian Silesia; Hungary and the Italian dependencies, about four times as large as the territories just mentioned, were excluded), Prussia[2], the kingdoms of Bavaria, Hanover, Würtemberg, and Saxony, the Grand-Duchies of Baden, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Hesse-Darmstadt, Oldenburg, Saxe-Weimar, the Electorate of Hesse, the Duchies of Nassau, Brunswick, Saxe-Gotha, Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, Anhalt-Köthen, Saxe-Hildburghausen, the Principalities of Lippe-Detmold, Waldeck, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Coburg, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Reuss (elder and younger lines), Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Schaumburg-Lippe, and Liechtenstein; the four Free Cities, Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen, and Frankfurt. Further, the King of Denmark was a member for the Duchies of Holstein and Lauenburg, and the King of the Netherlands (Holland and Belgium) for the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg. The thirty-ninth member was the Landgrave of Hesse-Homburg, who was 'forgotten' in the Act of 1815 and not included in the Confederation till 1817. The territory of this sovereign was about fifty square miles in extent.

With the exception of the territories treated separately below no change took place in the geographical area covered by the Confederation of 1815 down to its dissolution in 1866. Important in German history as was the year of Revolution (1848) and the movements to which it gave birth, no important alteration of the political settlement established by the Treaties of Vienna resulted. Natural causes had, however, by the year 1866 reduced the number of federated States from thirty-nine to thirty-three. Certain of the ruling dynasties had died out, viz. Saxe-Gotha (1825) incorporated with Saxe-Coburg, Anhalt-Köthen (1847) and Anhalt-Bernburg (1863) incorporated with Anhalt-Dessau, Hesse-Homburg (1866) incorporated with Hesse-Darmstadt; and Prussia had in 1849 absorbed the Principalities of Hohenzollern-Hechingen and Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen (see Plate XLII).

The Prussian Customs Union (*Zollverein*). The formation and development of this League for providing a common fiscal system and internal free trade played so influential a part in the subsequent political unification of Germany that its composition requires brief mention. It commenced in 1819 with a tariff-agreement between Prussia and the petty Principality of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen. In 1828 Hesse-Darmstadt and Anhalt joined; in 1831 Electoral Hesse, in 1833 Saxony and the Thuringian States: so that the year 1834 is usually assigned as that which marks the League as an important political factor. Further accessions were—Baden (1835), Nassau and Homburg (1835), Frankfurt (1836), Waldeck (1838), Luxemburg (1842), and in 1851 the members of the rival League (*Steuerverein*) founded under Austrian influence—Hanover, Brunswick, Oldenburg, Lippe, and Schaumburg. Austria herself was not admitted, owing to the difficulty of either including or excluding Hungary and her Italian possessions. The Customs Union was practically dissolved and organized on a wider basis as the result of the Austro-Prussian war of 1866.

Luxemburg. The peculiar position of Luxemburg requires explanation. By the arrangements made by the Congress of Vienna the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg was assigned in territorial sovereignty to the king of the Netherlands (then including Belgium), who became a member of the German Confederation as Grand Duke. The fortresses were garrisoned by Federal troops, the commander and three-fourths of whom were Prussian; and though the Duchy was represented in the Federal Diet in the person of its King-Duke it was also merged in the kingdom of the Netherlands, to whose Estates General it sent deputies. When the Revolution of 1830 ended in the formal separation of Belgium from the Northern Netherlands nine years of a dual and disputed government ensued until in 1839, by the Treaty of London, the Duchy was divided; two-thirds were assigned to the kingdom of Belgium, the remaining one-third, together with Limburg, being left under the territorial sovereignty of the King of the Netherlands, who continued a member of the German Confederation for the territory so defined. On the dissolution of the Confederation in 1866, Limburg was incorporated with the kingdom of the Netherlands, but the King was not invited to resume his former position and to represent the Grand

[1] The Austrian lands are not shown in the map.

[2] For details of the growth of Prussia see Plate XLII and the accompanying preface, and note that Prussia proper is not included in the Confederation.

THE FORMATION OF THE MODERN GERMAN EMPIRE

English Miles

10 5 0 10 20 30 40 50

Explanation

The Boundary of the German Empire (1871-1897) is shown thus .....

The Boundary of the North German Confederation (Nord Deutscher Bund - 1866-1871) is shown thus .....

The Reichsland (Alsace & Lorraine) acquired by the Treaty of Frankfurt 1871 is coloured thus .....

Heligoland

German Possessions in AFRICA

German Possessions in OCEANIA

Long. East of Greenw.

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston Ltd., Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

Duchy in the new North German Confederation. Prussia, however, claimed the right to continue to garrison the important Luxemburg fortresses. The proposed sale of the territorial sovereignty by the King-Duke William III to Napoleon III in 1867 very nearly anticipated the war of 1870 between France, and Prussia. Finally, by the second Treaty of London of 1867, Luxemburg was declared to be a personal appanage of William III, but it was politically separated from Holland, its perpetual neutrality was guaranteed by the European Powers, and it was agreed that its fortifications should be destroyed. Luxemburg was thus definitely excluded from the political organization of Germany of 1867, and from any subsequent re-organization such as followed in 1871. Its position in short was assimilated to that of Belgium and Switzerland. It only remains to note that in 1890 the dynastic tie between the Duchy and Holland was severed by the death of William III, who left no direct male heirs. The present Queen of the Netherlands was as a woman debarred from succeeding to her father's position in Luxemburg, and the right accordingly passed to the nearest male heir, the present Grand Duke Adolphus, of the Nassau line.

Schleswig-Holstein. Limits of space forbid discussion of the complicated political, dynastic, racial, and geographical problems connected with the previous history and changing fortunes of these two Duchies. Before 1866 Holstein in the person of the King of Denmark was a member of the German Confederation, and Schleswig was not; and by the London Protocol of May 8, 1852, the rights of the German Confederation, in Holstein and Lauenburg were to remain unaffected by the dynastic claims raised by the Danish Succession question. As a result of the war of 1864 between Denmark and the German Confederation, by the Treaty of October 30 of that year the King of Denmark ceded to Austria and Prussia the two Duchies and all his rights over them. A brief period of joint and disputed administration by these two powers followed, and ultimately as a consequence of the war of 1866 both Holstein and Schleswig were annexed by Prussia. Lauenburg was bought from Denmark by Prussia in 1867, and was treated as a personal appanage of the Hohenzollern sovereign until 1876, when it was incorporated with the Prussian kingdom. In this way a definite addition was made to the area as defined in 1815, ruled over by a German sovereign and sharing in the privileges of a federated Germany. (See also the preface to Plate XLII.)

The North German Confederation (*Nord-Deutscher Bund*). In 1866 the long-delayed trial of strength between Austria and Prussia, the two most powerful members of the German Confederation, came to an issue and ended in the complete defeat of Austria and her allies in the Bund. The broad result of the Treaty of Prague, which ended the war, was the formation in 1866 of a new League—the North German Confederation—under the Presidency of Prussia[1]. The new League was essentially North German, the southern boundary line being fixed at the Main, and it comprised twenty-two members: Prussia, the kingdom of Saxony, the Grand Duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Oldenburg, Saxe-Weimar, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, the Duchies of Brunswick, Anhalt, Saxe-Meiningen-Hildburghausen, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Saxe-Altenburg, the Principalities of Lippe-Detmold, Waldeck, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Reuss (elder and younger lines), Schaumburg-Lippe, and the three Free Cities—Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen. The twenty-second member was the Grand Duke of Hesse, but only for his territory north of the Main. Austria and the South German States were formally excluded, but the international position of Bavaria, Baden, and Würtemberg had been guaranteed by the Treaty of Prague, and by way of compensation a South German Confederation was created on paper. The way for a closer union between North and South Germany, excluding Austria, was paved by (1) the separate military conventions between the Confederation and Bavaria, Baden, and Würtemberg, and (2) the reconstruction of the Prussian Customs Union. Separate agreements and the foundation of a Federal Tariff System (*Zollverein*), a Tariff Parliament (*Zollparlament*), and a Tariff Council (*Zollbundesrath*), linked the States not included in the political organization of 1866 in a common trade and fiscal system which practically covered the area of the modern German Empire. Thus the military and economic unification of Germany of to-day preceded by four years the political unification.

The Modern German Empire (*Das Deutsche Reich*). This was the result of the Franco-German war of 1870–1871. The actual foundation of the constitution which followed the Treaty of Frankfurt was anticipated in the Grande Salle des Glaces at Versailles, when William King of Prussia was greeted by the sovereign princes of Germany as German Emperor, on January 18, 1871, the anniversary of the day on which the Elector of Brandenburg had been crowned King of Prussia at Königsberg in 1701. From the geographical point of view the new empire, the hereditary sovereignty of which was perpetually vested in the Prussian monarchy, simply added to the twenty-two members of the North German Confederation, now dissolved, the kingdoms of Bavaria and Würtemberg, and the Grand Duchy of Baden, together with the territory of the Grand Duke of Hesse not included in the League of 1866. It thus numbers twenty-five federated States whose existing boundaries were not altered by the new constitution. The map, however, shows one momentous change. Alsace and a large part of Lorraine, lost to the Empire in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, were by the Treaty of Frankfurt (May 10, 1871) transferred from French to German rule. These two provinces, with an area of 5,600 square miles and a population numbering 1,549,459 inhabitants, were organized as Imperial Territory (*Reichsland*), and, though permitted to share in the new Federal constitution, were placed under the administration of a Vicegerent (*Statthalter*) appointed by the Emperor and responsible to the imperial government.

Since 1871 two slight changes require recording. In 1884 the ducal line of Brunswick died out; the two nearest heirs, the Dukes of Cumberland and Cambridge, were excluded because they declined to make the necessary renunciations; the government was accordingly vested in a Hohenzollern prince, and Brunswick continued to exist as a separate Federal State of the Empire. In 1890 the island of Heligoland, ceded under treaty by Great Britain to Germany, was incorporated in the Prussian administrative province of Schleswig-Holstein.

The Free Cities. As noted above, four Free Cities with a republican constitution—Hamburg, Lübeck, Frankfurt, and Bremen—were members of the German Confederation. In 1866 Frankfurt was annexed by Prussia; the remaining three joined the North German Confederation. Lübeck

[1] For details of the purely Prussian acquisitions, see the preface to Plate XLII.

entered the Customs Union also; Hamburg (with Cuxhaven), however, and Bremen (with Bremerhaven) remained outside as Free ports, so that in 1871 the political frontier of the Empire did not exactly correspond with the customs frontier (*Zollgebiet*). In 1888 Hamburg and Bremen abandoned their fiscal independence (Hamburg reserving the actual harbour and warehouses as 'free') and entered the *Zollgebiet*. But it is worth noting that to-day the Customs Union still includes Luxemburg, and the Austrian communes of Jungholz and Mittelberg, which are not politically members of the Empire.

Colonial Possessions. Between the year 1721, when Prussia sold to the Dutch her small possessions on the Gold Coast, and 1884 no German State possessed territory outside Europe. In 1897 the colonies and protectorates under the German flag were—(1) in Africa—Togoland and the Cameroons, acquired in 1884, German South-West Africa and German East Africa (1885); (2) in the Pacific — Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, i.e. the northern section of south-east New Guinea with Long Island and Dampier Island (1884), the Bismarck Archipelago (1884), the Solomon Islands and the Marshall Islands (1885). The subsequent extension and final delimitations of these colonies and protectorates by treaties with various European powers, and the acquisition of Kiau Chau in China, of Samoa and the Caroline Islands in the Pacific, lies outside the dates covered by the maps of this Atlas.

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AUTHORITIES: — Freeman, *Historical Geography*; Himly, *Histoire de la formation des états de l'Europe Centrale*; Hertslet, *The Map of Europe by Treaty*; and the maps and accompanying texts in the *Historical Atlases* of Spruner-Menke and Droysen, and *The Statesman's Year Book*. On the German possessions in Africa, see especially Lucas, *A Historical Geography of the British Colonies*, vols. iii and iv; and Keltie, *The Partition of Africa*.

XLIV

THE SWISS CONFEDERATION

XLIV.

THE SWISS CONFEDERATION.

THE gradual growth of the Swiss Confederation cannot be understood unless three great facts are always borne in mind:

1. That the Confederation was made up of various bits of the Holy Roman Empire, which drew together for common defence against a common foe, the Habsburgs, and that it became practically independent of the Empire in 1499, though not formally till 1648.

2. That the original nucleus of this Confederation was German-speaking, and that it remained purely German-speaking for over 500 years.

3. That after 1798 the former 'allied' and 'subject' districts were raised to a political equality with the older members of the Confederation, so that in 1803 and 1815 the Confederation came to include also French-speaking, Italian-speaking, and Romonsch-speaking members.

The first of these points being self-evident, the object of the accompanying map is to bring out as clearly as possible the second and third. A minor object is to show the principal passes, in and from Switzerland, which are certainly known to have been in use in the Middle Ages.

I. **The Three Cantons, 1291–1332.** These formed the nucleus of the Confederation, and, by accident, still form its central portion. In 1291 *Uri*, *Schwyz*, and *Unterwalden*—three small districts standing in relations with the head of the house of Habsburg in his quality respectively as Emperor, Count of the Zürichgau, and feudal landowner—joined together in an alliance against the Habsburgs, and renewed this alliance in 1315, after their glorious victory over that family at Morgarten Pass.

II. **The Eight Cantons, 1332–1481.** This success attracted other members towards the infant Confederation. In 1332 *Lucerne* (bought by the Habsburgs in 1291), in 1352 *Zug* and *Glarus*, shook themselves free from the Habsburgs, and became members of the 'Everlasting League,' into which the free imperial cities of *Zürich* (1351) and *Bern* (1353) were also received. The League thus lost its purely rural character, but gained in strength and importance. Zug was finally secured in 1364, and Glarus by the victory of Näfels (1388), while the whole Confederation maintained its independence by the great victory of Sempach (1386). This League, composed of eight cantons, began from early in the fifteenth century to gather round itself 'allied districts,' and also 'subject districts,' and once more upheld its independence by defeating Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, at Grandson and at Morat (both in 1476).

III. **The Thirteen Cantons, 1481–1798.** One result of these victories was the creation of a class of Swiss mercenary soldiers, which led to a close connexion with France, particularly after 1516. Another and better result was the admission of new members into the League. In 1481 *Fribourg* (Freiburg) and *Solothurn* (Soleure) were received. After a further attempt at invasion by the house of Habsburg had been thwarted in 1499 by the victory at the Calven Gorge, the Confederation became practically independent of the Empire, and received into its circle in 1501 the free imperial city of *Basel* (Bâle), and *Schaffhausen*, once a free imperial city, but later subject to Austria. By this means the northern frontier of the Confederation was strengthened. Finally, in 1513 the number of thirteen was completed by the admission of *Appenzell*, which by the fight at the Stoss Pass in 1405 had thrown off the yoke of the Prince-Abbat of St. Gall, and had ever since been under the protection of the League. Such was the number of the full members of the League all through the religious struggles of the sixteenth to the eighteenth century, in 1648 when it became formally independent of the Empire, and during the period of political torpor which lasted nearly the whole of the eighteenth century.

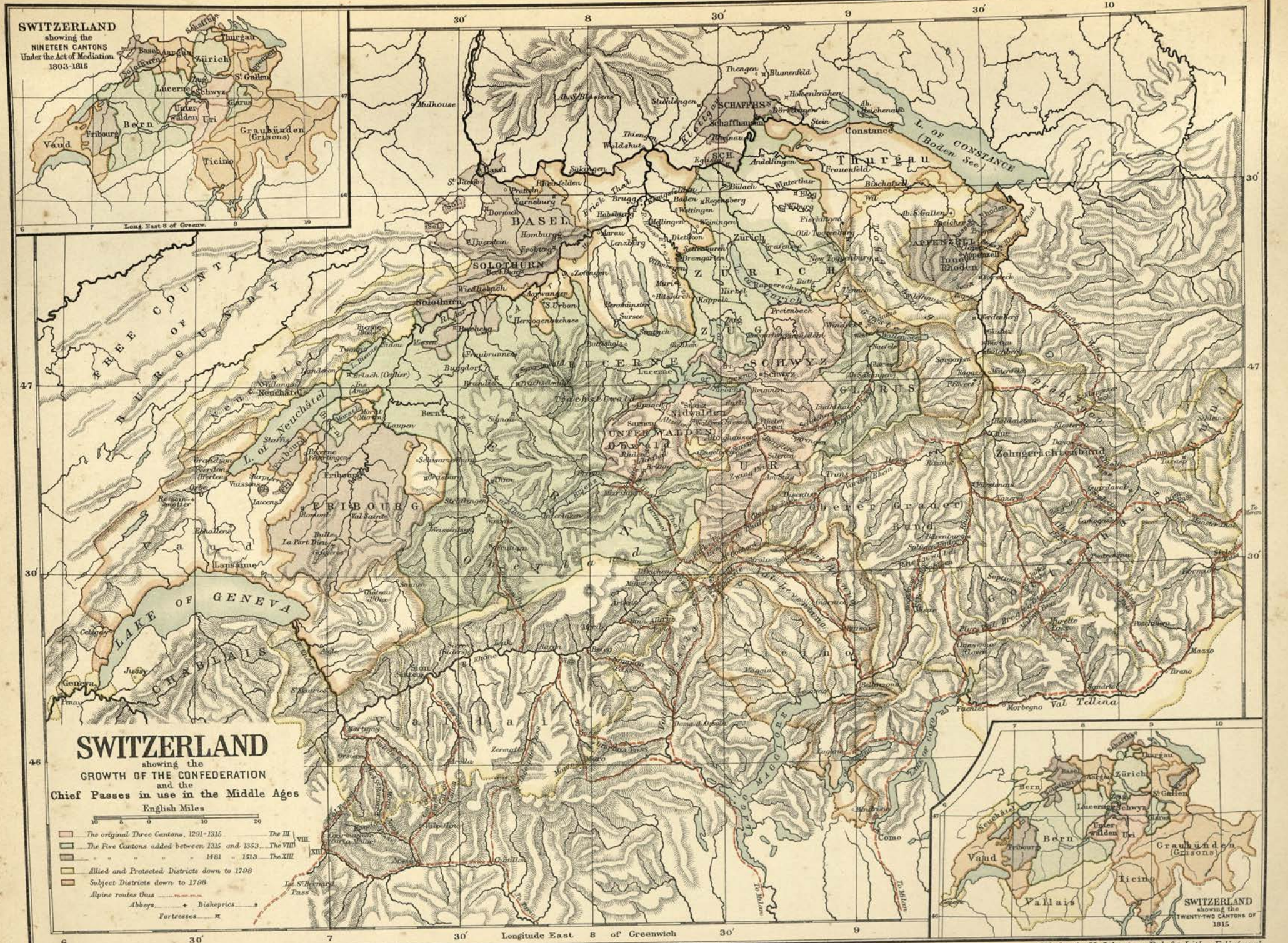
Thus round the three original members five others had gathered, united with the three, but not necessarily with each other. Afterwards there had come into existence an outer circle of five more, all of which were united with the eight, but tied down by certain stringent conditions. This complicated state of things was further complicated by the existence of 'allied districts' and 'subject districts.'

IV. **'Allied Districts' and 'Subject Districts,' 1415–1798.** These formed as it were two outer rings around the thirteen full members, and are important historically because from them came in course of time the nine other cantons which made up the familiar number of twenty-two.

(*a*) **'Allied Districts.'** These were districts which stood in more or less close relations of friendship with the thirteen. It is very hard to distinguish precisely the exact shades of difference between some of the districts included under this term (first used in 1440), but, roughly speaking, they may be divided into three classes:

(1) Those which regularly had seats in the 'Diet' or 'Assembly' of the League.

Such were the *Abbat of St. Gall* (1451), the town of *St. Gall* (1454), and the town of *Biel* or *Bienne* (1529). Mulhouse (in Alsace) had a seat from 1518 to 1587, but was then edged out by the Romanist Cantons; while, similarly, Rottweil (now in Württemberg) had a seat from 1519 to 1632 (finally lost in 1689), but lost it owing to the enmity of the Protestant cantons.


SWITZERLAND
showing the
NINETEEN CANTONS
Under the Act of Mediation
1803-1815
Long. East 8 of Greenw.
SWITZERLAND
showing the
GROWTH OF THE CONFEDERATION
and the
Chief Passes in use in the Middle Ages
English Miles
10 5 0 10 20
The original Three Cantons, 1291-1315 ..... The III.
The Five Cantons added between 1315 and 1353 ..... The VIII
" " " " " 1481 " 1513 ..... The XIII
Allied and Protected Districts down to 1798
Subject Districts down to 1798
Alpine routes thus
Abbeys + Bishoprics ‡
Fortresses ⊞
Longitude East 8 of Greenwich
SWITZERLAND
showing the
TWENTY-TWO CANTONS OF
1815

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh

Oxford: Clarendon Press

(2) Those which were occasionally summoned to the Diet.

This class comprised the sister Confederations of the *Vallais* (1416), and of the *Grisons* or *Graubünden* (1497–8).

(3) Small districts 'protected' by certain of the thirteen, but never admitted into the Diet.

Such were the tiny republic of *Gersau* (1332), the great Benedictine house of *Engelberg* (1462), and the town of *Rapperschwyl* (1464).

But the great religious revolution of the sixteenth century caused a shifting of the position of the 'allied districts,' and gradually a Romanist and a Protestant set of 'allies' came into existence. The former comprised the *Abbat of St. Gall*, the *Prince-Bishop of Basel* (from 1479), the *Vallais*, and *Rottweil*. The latter was made up of the towns of *St. Gall*, *Mulhouse*, *Bienne*, *Geneva* (1526), *Neuchâtel* (1529), and the Confederation of the *Grisons*.

(*b*) **'Subject Districts.'** These were conquests made by one or more cantons, and ruled exclusively by their conquerors. They had thus no separate position in the League, and formed part of it simply as bits of the territory of their masters. Such were *Aargau* (1415), *Thurgau* (1460), *Grandson*, *Morat*, *Orbe*, *Echallens*, *Aigle*, and the *Lower Vallais* (all taken from Savoy in 1475–6), *Lausanne* and *Vaud* (1536), *Gruyères* (1555), and the Italian-speaking bailiwicks of *Val Leventina* (1440), *Bellinzona* (1500), *Locarno*, *Val Maggia*, *Lugano*, *Mendrisio*, *Chiavenna*, *Bormio*, and the *Val Tellina* (all in 1512).

V. **The Helvetic Republic, 1798–1803.** In 1798 the reflex action of the French Revolution broke up the old system of the Confederation, which had lasted over 500 years. General Brune's scheme (March, 1798) of dividing up the territories of the thirteen cantons, of their 'allies' and 'subjects,' into three Republics—the Rhodanic (West Switzerland), that of Tell (Central Switzerland), and the Helvetic (North and East Switzerland)—existed but for a week, and that only on paper. Soon after a more lasting state was founded, the 'Helvetic Republic, one and indivisible,' which consisted at first of twenty-three, later of nineteen cantons (the word 'canton' being now first officially used in Switzerland of any part of the old Confederation). But *Mulhouse*, *Chiavenna*, *Bormio*, and the *Val Tellina* were finally lost to Switzerland in 1797.

VI. **The Nineteen Cantons, 1803–1815.** In 1803 NAPOLEON, by his so-called Act of Mediation, divided 'Switzerland' (this name is the official title of the new state) into nineteen cantons, which were far less artificial than those of the Helvetic Republic. To the thirteen (the limits of which were of course considerably altered thereby) there were added six new cantons. Two of these had been formerly classed among the 'allies'—the *Grisons* and *St. Gall* (both the territory of the abbey and that of the town); while the four others were made up out of the 'subject lands'—*Aargau*, *Thurgau*, *Ticino* or *Tessin* (the Italian-speaking bailiwicks), and *Vaud* (the French-speaking bailiwicks). Napoleon also gave to Switzerland, in 1802, the *Frick valley*, the last Austrian possession within the limits of the Confederation.

VII. **The Twenty-two Cantons, since 1815.** The Congress of Vienna, in 1815, set up the Confederation as we know it. Three new cantons were added, all from the former class of 'allies': *Vallais*, *Neuchâtel*, and *Geneva* (the latter enlarged by the addition of some small bits of Savoy). Bern received as compensation for her losses the town of Bienne, and most of the dominions of the secularized Princebishopric of Basel (the 'Bernese Jura'). Another Act of the same Congress was to neutralize Switzerland and North Savoy, under the guarantee of the Great Powers. In 1857 the King of Prussia finally renounced his claims to the principality of Neuchâtel, and in 1862 the Franco-Swiss frontier in the Dappes glen was rectified by an amicable agreement.

The ecclesiastical historical geography of the lands now called Switzerland is a striking illustration of the artificial character of the Confederation so far as regards its geographical growth and development. Throughout the Middle Ages and down to 1814, the lands now included within the Confederation formed parts of eight dioceses, belonging to five ecclesiastical provinces, and one patriarchate. *Mainz* claimed the dioceses of Constance and Chur (Coire); *Besançon*, those of Basel and Lausanne; *Vienne*, that of Geneva; *Tarantaise*, that of Sion (which after 1513 was immediately dependent on the Pope); and the Patriarchate of *Aquileia*, that of Como; while *Milan*, as an archbishop's see, was in its own province. Of these, Sion, Basel, Lausanne, and Chur were the only dioceses wholly or mainly comprised within the limits of the Confederation; the rest (save Constance) had jurisdiction over the various allies or conquests of the members of the Confederation. Naturally therefore the four first-named still exist, though with altered boundaries. In 1814 the Swiss portion of *Constance* (no less than twelve cantons and a bit) was cut off, and finally distributed among Chur, Basel, and the new see of *St. Gall* (founded 1824). In 1828 the diocese of *Basel* was reorganized, and the Swiss portions of *Geneva* (the see was suppressed in 1801) were given in 1819 to Lausanne, the bishop of which, since 1821, has borne the title of 'Lausanne and Geneva.' Great trouble was found in rearranging the diocesan relations of the *Italian-speaking bailiwicks* and Poschiavo, particularly after the erection in 1803 of the new Canton of Ticino, which included all the districts mentioned, save Poschiavo (in the Grisons) handed over to Chur in 1869. Finally, in 1888 the new see of *Lugano* was erected for the Ticinese districts, and is now united provisionally with the see of Basel. There are thus in Switzerland at present six sees: Sion (one canton), Lausanne and Geneva (four cantons), St. Gall (two cantons), Chur (six cantons), Basel and Lugano (eight cantons, besides practically the Romanists of Bern). Moreover, since 1840 the see of Bethlehem *in partibus infidelium* is held *ex officio* by the Abbat of St. Maurice, while there is also a non-diocesan 'Old Catholic' bishop. The Bishop of Basel has his chair at Solothurn. In the Middle Ages, apart from the sees of Sion (i.e. the Vallais) in the south-west, and of Chur (i.e. the Grisons) in the east, the Confederation was practically divided between Constance and Lausanne, the limit being formed by the river Aar, of which Constance held the right bank, and Lausanne the left bank. Hence Interlaken and Grindelwald were in Lausanne, but Meiringen in Constance.

Religious Houses. Some of these were almost independent principalities (e.g. Einsiedeln, Engelberg, Disentis), while others (like some of the bishops' sees) formed the nucleus of towns which grew up around them. The following list only includes the most important of these religious houses, the date of foundation being given, as well as that of secularization (if indeed that process has yet taken place, for many still exist).

The Benedictines are represented by St. Gall (614–1805), Disentis (614), Lucerne (seventh century to 1455), Pfävers (720–1838), Rheinau (778–1862), Einsiedeln (831), Muri (1027–1841), Schaffhausen (1052–1524), and Engelberg (1120). Two Benedictine nunneries may be mentioned: the Fraumünster at Zürich (853–1524), and Münster in the Grisons (ninth century). Wettingen (1227–1841) was the great Cistercian house, Part Dieu (1307–1848) and Valsainte (thirteenth century to 1777, now Trappist) the chief Carthusian convents, while Romainmotier (founded in the seventh century by Irish monks) was Cluniac from 929 to 1536. The Dominicans had a house at Bern from 1269 to 1528, and the Teutonic Order had one at the same town from 1256 till 1484.

The principal houses of Canons Regular or Austin Canons are or were St. Maurice (founded 515 for monks of a special kind, held from 824 by Secular Canons, and since 1128 by Austin Canons), the Great St. Bernard (founded in the eleventh century, Augustinian possibly since 1154, certainly from 1215), and Interlaken (1133–1528).

Secular Canons held (besides the cathedral chapters) Beromünster (720), Gross Münster at Zürich (ninth century to 1524), Lugano (tenth century), Solothurn (eleventh century to 1874), Neuchâtel (twelfth century to 1530), and Lucerne (from 1455).

Reference may be made to the 'Historisch-Geographischer Atlas der Schweiz' (fifteen maps) by S. Vögelin, G. Meyer von Knonau, and G. von Wyss (new edition, Zürich, 1870); J. S. Gerster's 'Acht Karten zur Veranschaulichung der Hauptperioden der Schweizergeschichte' (Zürich, 1886), with text by W. Oechsli; and A. Himly's 'Histoire de la Formation Territoriale des États de l'Europe Centrale' (Paris, 1876), Book vi. For the history of the 'allied districts' see W. Oechsli's classical article on the 'Orte und Zugewandte' in the 'Jahrbuch für Schweizerische Geschichte,' vol. xiii. (Zürich, 1888); and for the ecclesiastical historical geography of the Confederation see an article by the present writer in the 'Guardian' for November 21, 1888, pp. 1765–6.

W. A. B. COOLIDGE.

XLV

HUNGARY, 997–1382

XLV

HUNGARY, 997-1382

IN Roman times the centre of what we now call Hungary was occupied by the savage Jazygi, eastward of whom extended the province of *Dacia*, westwards the province of *Pannonia*. On the fall of the Empire, the great Hungarian plain was overrun successively by the Alemanni, Slavs, and Avars, and permanently conquered, towards the end of the ninth century, by the Ugrians, or Magyars, who, under pressure from the Petchenegs (or Patzinaks), had quitted their former settlement between the Dnieper and the Don, and sought, under the leadership of ARPAD, a fresh home further westwards. For the next century this nomad race was the terror of Central and Western Europe; but the routs of Merseburg (933) and Augsburg (955) somewhat tamed their fury, and the forcible introduction of Christianity by King STEPHEN I (997–1038) converted what had before been but a camp of freebooters into an organized state. Relapses into heathenism, with resulting strife and confusion, retarded the development of the monarchy; but LADISLAUS I (1077–1095) conquered *Slavonia*, *Croatia*, and part of *Dalmatia*. His successor KOLOMAN (1095–1114) sought to obtain a firm footing on the Mediterranean (a much more difficult enterprise, encountering as it did the determined opposition of Venice, aided by the Greek Emperor ALEXIUS I), and he was ultimately successful in obtaining the submission of *Spalato*, *Zara*, and the other coast towns (1105–8). It was this prince, moreover, who first extended the dominion of *Hungary* over part of what was then known as the *kingdom of Rama*, representing approximately the modern *Bosnia* and *Herzegovina*. On Koloman's death, another period of disorder ensued, during which the influence of the Greek Empire in Hungary was paramount. This was particularly the case during the reign of the vigorous MANUEL COMNENUS, who placed his candidates again and again on the throne of St. Stephen, and won back the whole Balkan peninsula up to the Danube, including *Dalmatia*, and even *Szeremseg*, that is, the eastern portion of Croatia. On the death of Manuel, however, BELA III (1173–1196) shook off the Greek yoke, and Hungary again became a conquering power. *Croatia* and the mainland of *Dalmatia* were recovered (1188–1190), but the islands remained in the hands of Venice. Bela also held possession of *Halicz* (*Galicia*) and *Lodomeria* (the modern Volhynia and Podolia) for a time (1186–9), and was the first Hungarian sovereign who styled himself the King of those provinces. Despite subsequent internal troubles and the terrible devastations of the Mongols, Hungary, throughout the thirteenth century, continued to increase both in power and territory. In 1202 *Servia*, in 1204 the northern portion of *Bulgaria*, submitted to EMERICH, who henceforth styled himself King of Servia and Bulgaria; but, on the other hand, this monarch lost *Zara*, which was captured by the Venetians. Another great ruler was BELA IV (1235–70), who bore the brunt of the terrible Mongol invasion, and raised the kingdom again from its ruins. Bela gained a footing in *Wallachia*, held *Styria* for a time, and was at constant variance with Venice concerning *Dalmatia*, the major part of which still did homage to Hungary.

Under the last princes of the House of Arpad (1270–1308) the kingdom was convulsed by almost incessant civil wars, so that it needed all the ability of CHARLES ROBERT (1308–1342), the founder of the Angevin dynasty, to restore the credit of the state at home and abroad. In 1319 he recovered the northern part of *Servia* (the so-called *Macsoi banate*) from the despot MILUTIN UROSH, whom he also compelled to do homage for the rest of his lands; but in attempting to chastise his rebellious vassal, MICHAEL BAZARAD, hospodar of Wallachia, the king lost his army among the mountains, and Michael occupied the whole of the *Szörenyi banate*, as the eastern portion of Wallachia, lying between the Aluta and the Danube, was then called. During the reign, however, of Charles's successor, LEWIS (1342–1382), Hungary more than recovered her ancient supremacy, and extended her dominions in every direction. In 1359 Lewis placed his cousin TVARDKO on the throne of Servia, which he was to hold as a fief of Hungary; in 1365 he reconquered the western part of *Bulgaria*, which he erected into the *Bodonyi banate*, to serve as a barrier against the Ottoman Turks, now appearing for the first time; in 1368 he forced the hospodar of Wallachia to submit to his sway, and re-established the Szörenyi banate, building the fortress of Törcsvar to mark the boundary between Transylvania and Wallachia. *Moldavia* also acknowledged Hungary as her suzerain, *Bosnia* was again subjugated, *Lodomeria* and *Halicz* were won back, and even the powerful Venetian Republic, after a long war interrupted by frequent truces, was compelled at last to sue for peace and (by the Peace of Turin, August 8, 1381) to retrocede most of Dalmatia to the Hungarian crown.

At the end of the reign of Lewis, Hungary had attained her extreme territorial extension. The limits of the kingdom proper were, indeed, much the same as they are to-day, except that they included *Dalmatia*, and parts of *Poland*, *Wallachia*, and *Moldavia*; but these limits were encircled on the south by a whole series of protective banates (bánságok) or marches, each under its Bán or lord-marcher, and beyond the banates lay the semi-dependent principalities over which the Hungarian crown exercised lordship. The principal of these marches were the *Ozorai banate*, embracing the northern part of modern Bosnia; the *Macsoi banate*, which took in northern Servia between the Drina and the Kolubara; the great *Szörenyi banate*, which included all Wallachia between the Aluta and the Danube; and, south of that, the *Bodónyi* (Widdin) *banate*, comprising the western part of Bulgaria. Beyond these banates lay the subject states of *Rama* (South Bosnia), *Rascia* (South Servia), and Bulgaria proper, while to the south-east of Transylvania and the Aluta stretched the vast but ill-defined dependent *kingdom of Cumania* (Kunország), which comprised eastern Wallachia, and parts of Moldavia, the Bukovina, and of Bessarabia.

The inset map, showing the ecclesiastical divisions of Hungary at a time when its system may be considered to have been fully organized, is adapted from one of Professor Caro's maps (Spruner, 74). The churches attached to the Orthodox or Eastern obedience are underlined in red. For particulars of earlier and later changes in the diocesan arrangements the student is referred to the authority above cited.

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Ecclesiastical Divisions of HUNGARY at Beginning of THE 13th CENTURY
Eng. Miles
HUNGARY
998 – 1382
English Miles
Explanation
Hungary at the end of St Stephen's reign, circa 1038
Accessions under later Arpads down to circa 1270
The border Banates, circa 1370
Longitude East 22 of Greenwich
Oxford: Clarendon Press
W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

XLVI

HUNGARY, 1382–1739

XLVI

HUNGARY, 1382-1739

EIGHT years after the death of LEWIS THE GREAT in 1382, the Turkish Sultan, MURAD I, overthrew the grand coalition of the Albanians and Southern Slavs, at the battle of Kossovo, which established the supremacy of the Ottomans in the Balkan Peninsula. *Hungary*, now the immediate neighbour of the Turks, was the next to suffer, and the greater part of her Transdanubian dominions quickly passed into the hands of the Sultan. In the last decade of the fourteenth century *Rascia* and *Bulgaria* were completely lost, and King SIGISMUND, in attempting to recover them, was utterly routed at the great battle of Nicopolis (1396). It was an aggravation of Hungary's misfortunes when this monarch was elected Emperor (1410), and King of Bohemia (1419), for, during his absence, the Turks freely ravaged the now considerably diminished southern banates. It was now, too, that the greater part of *Dalmatia* was occupied by the Venetians, though Hungary maintained her claims to the mainland (1420). Throughout the fifteenth century Hungary continued, though with ever increasing difficulty, to keep the Turks at bay, but not even the genius and valour of JOHN HUNYADI (Regent, 1446–1453), and his son MATTHIAS CORVINUS (1458–1490), could do much more than this. The latter, indeed, succeeded (1479) in driving the Turks out of *Bosnia* and *Northern Servia*, and even enabled Moldavia to throw off for a time the Turkish yoke; but Matthias's splendid energies were dissipated over too many enterprises, and he neglected the true interests of his native land in order to aggrandize himself at the expense of less formidable foes than the Ottomans—Bohemia and the House of Austria—with the ultimate view of obtaining the Imperial crown. The long and costly war with Bohemia was triumphantly concluded by the Peace of Breslau (1478), when *Silesia*, *Moravia*, and *Lusatia* were ceded to Hungary. Equally obstinate was the strife with the House of Habsburg, from whom Matthias finally succeeded in wresting *Lower Austria*, including *Vienna*, where he held his court for the last five years of his life (1485–90). (See the inset map.)

These illusory triumphs only served to mask the real poverty and weakness of the nation, and under the feeble rule of Matthias's successors, LADISLAUS II and LEWIS II, who were the slaves of their nobles, Hungary sank so low that she was unable to offer any effectual resistance when the Turks, under SOLIMAN THE MAGNIFICENT, again attacked her. In 1521 Soliman captured *Belgrade* and *Sabacz* (*Shabats*) and swept away the last fragments of the southern banates. Five years later he invaded Hungary proper, and utterly routed the Magyar army at Mohacs (August 29, 1526), King Lewis himself perishing on the field of battle. A bloody war of succession completed the ruin of the unhappy country, and a partition of the kingdom was finally made between FERDINAND of Austria, JOHN SIGISMUND ZAPOLYA, the first of the long line of semi-independent Transylvanian Princes, and the Turks. Austria held the *western portion of Hungary*, a strip extending from the Adriatic to Bartfa at the foot of the Carpathians; *eastern Hungary*, between the Carpathians and Moldo-Wallachia, fell to Transylvania; while the *centre* of the kingdom was retained by the Turks, and divided by them into fifteen sandjaks or provinces, under the supreme jurisdiction of the beglerbeg or viceroy of Buda. Both the *kingdom of Hungary* (as the Austrian portion of it was called) and the *principality of Transylvania* (formally recognized by the Emperor MAXIMILIAN in 1570) paid occasional tribute to the Ottoman Porte; but chronic warfare between the three states, suspended by occasional truces, prevailed during the next century and a half, and their boundaries shifted perpetually according to the successes or reverses of their respective arms. The perpetual dissensions between Roman Catholic Austria and Protestant Transylvania enabled the Turks to maintain and even improve their position in the kingdom. Thus in 1658 they wrested *Gross Wardein*, *Debreczin*, *Karansebes*, and the county of *Bihar*, from Transylvania, and, five years later, the Grand Vizier, AHMED KÖPRILI, conquered from Austria all Hungary from Lake Balaton to the Danube, and from the Danube to the sources of the Ipoly, including the towns of *Veszprem*, *Pápa*, *Ersekujvar*, *Leva*, and *Szécseny*, which conquests were formally ceded to the Porte by the Peace of Vasvár (1664). But, for all this, the power of the Turks was already on the wane, and only three-and-thirty years after this triumphant peace they were entirely driven out of Hungary by Prince EUGENE, and relinquished by the Peace of Karlowitz (1699) all Hungary, Croatia, and Slavonia with the exception of the Temesvar banate and a narrow strip of territory nearly corresponding to the ancient district of Szeremseg.

One result of the sixteen years' war ending in the expulsion of the Turks was the extinction of the principality of Transylvania, which, on the death of its last legitimate prince, MICHAEL APAFI, was incorporated with the rest of Hungary (1690). The boundaries of the kingdom were still further extended, at the expense of the Turks, by the Peace of Passarovits (1718), whereby Austria not only regained the Temesvar banate, but acquired, besides, a strip of Bosnia, nearly the whole of Servia, and Wallachia west of the Aluta —a boundary maintained for the next twenty years, till the Peace of Belgrade (1739), when all these conquests, except the Temesvar banate and Szeremseg, had to be retroceded, together with the fortress of Belgrade, one of the most ancient possessions of the Crown of St. Stephen; and this last has never been permanently recovered. Since then the boundaries of Hungary proper have undergone no change.

For fuller particulars the reader is referred to Szilágyi, 'A magyar nemzet története'; Horváth, 'Magyarország történelme.' Maps are given by Márki, 'Magyar és Lengyelország térképe 1382-ben'; Laukó, 'A magyar királyság a xiii században'; Baróti, 'Magyarország a török uralom idejében'; and Helmár, 'A magyar birodalom 888-tól 1849-ig.'

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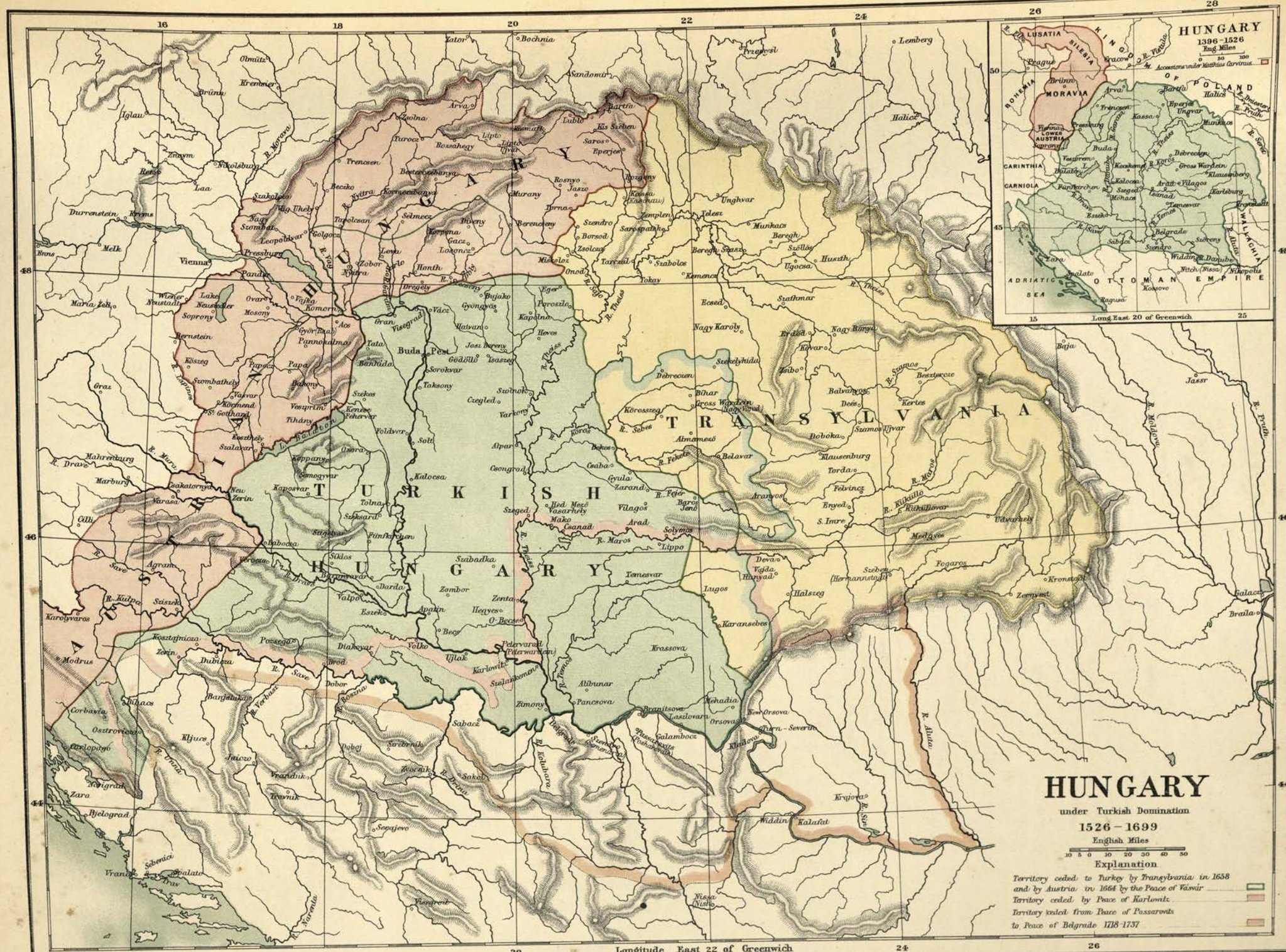

HUNGARY

under Turkish Domination

1526 – 1699

English Miles

10 5 0 10 20 30 40 50

Explanation

Territory ceded to Turkey by Transylvania in 1658 and by Austria in 1664 by the Peace of Vaswir

Territory ceded by Peace of Karlowitz

Territory ceded from Peace of Passarovitz to Peace of Belgrade 1718-1737

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

XLVII

POLAND AND LITHUANIA BEFORE THE UNION OF LUBLIN, 1569

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POLAND AND LITHUANIA BEFORE THE UNION OF LUBLIN, 1569

THE Polish state founded by BOLESLAW I (992–1025), which, in the eleventh century, had threatened to aggrandize herself at the expense of all her neighbours, had by the middle of the twelfth century split up into four distinct principalities under the nominal headship of the Duke of Craców. More than a century and a half of almost incessant strife and anarchy ensued, until WLADISLAW LOKIETEK (1306–1333) reunited the provinces of *Chrobatia* (the country round Craców), *Cujavia*, and *Silesia* into a stable though composite kingdom.

The further aggrandizement of Poland was, however, retarded for a time by the presence of an intrusive foreign neighbour, who completely cut her off from the sea. This was the Teutonic Order, which, on the invitation of CONRAD, Duke of Mazovia, had settled down in *Kulm* and the neighbouring districts (1230), with the obligation to protect *Mazovia* from the incessant incursions of the Prussians and Lithuanians, and the right to retain possession of the lands so acquired. After more than fifty years of severe and incessant fighting, all the territory between the lower Vistula and the middle Memel was won by the Order. Colonization followed in the wake of conquest, and when, with the consent of the Pope (1237), the Order of the Sword in Livonia (established in 1200) became subject to the larger and more prosperous Order, a broad band of Germanized territory extended along the shores of the Baltic from Lake Peipus to Marienburg, which territory was extended still further by the purchase from Poland in 1308 of the province of *Pomerelia*, including the towns of *Danzig* and *Dirschau*, and the whole delta of the Vistula.

In the middle of the fourteenth century the power of the Order was at its height, but it now encountered a formidable and ultimately victorious antagonist in the newly founded state of *Lithuania*, which first rose into importance about the middle of the thirteenth century, when MENDOVG, a prince of extraordinary spirit and subtlety, alarmed at the progress of the Teutonic Order, united the Lithuanians, hitherto scattered loosely along the course of the Niemen, into a nation resolved at all hazards to defend its independence against the intruder. MENDOVG rapidly extended his dominions, mainly at the expense of his eastern Slavonic neighbours, from whom he won the greater part of the districts generally known as *White* and *Black Russia*. Under his still greater descendant, GEDEMIN (1316–1340), and the latter's gifted and enterprising sons, OLGERD and KEISTUT (1345–1377), Lithuania bid fair to become one of the largest states in Europe. The principalities of *Kiev*, *Vladimir*, and *Wolhynia* submitted to her; *Podlachia* was wrested from the Ruthenians; *Novgorod* sought her protection; the Tatars of *Perekop* on the south coast acknowledged the headship of OLGERD, so that when he died the Grand-Duchy extended from the mouth of the Memel to the mouth of the Dnieper.

Meanwhile Poland also had not stood still, although her increase was small in comparison with that of Lithuania. CASIMIR THE GREAT (1333–1370) had ceded *Silesia* to Bohemia (Peace of Trentschin, 1335), and *Pomerelia*, *Kulm*, and *Michelau* definitively to the Teutonic Order (Peace of Kalisz, 1343); but, on the other hand, he made, towards the south-east, the important conquest of the Russian principalities of *Halicz* (Galicia) and *Lodomeria*, which first brought Poland into collision with Hungary and Lithuania. On CASIMIR'S death, without issue, the crown went to his nephew, LEWIS of HUNGARY (1370–1382), who was succeeded by his daughter HEDWIG. She was forced by her nobles, jealous of the influence of Hungary, to marry JAGELLO, the reigning Grand-Duke of Lithuania, who, on March 4, 1388, was christened and crowned King of Poland at Craców, under the name of WLADISLAW II. With him began the dynasty of the JAGELLONS. This union immensely increased the power of Poland, which for the next two centuries continued to be the mightiest state in eastern Europe. In 1387 *Red Russia* and in 1431 *Podolia* were definitively incorporated with her other territories. In 1405 she recovered *Cujavia* and the district of *Dobrzyn* from the Teutonic Order, and, five years later, a war between Poland and the Knights concerning *Samogitia* ended in the almost total annihilation of the forces of the latter at the great battle of Tannenberg in the Kulm district (July 15, 1410), which resulted in the restitution to Lithuania of the disputed province (Peace of Thorn, February 1, 1411). This defeat was a mortal blow to the Teutonic Order, although, for nearly half a century after, the Knights continued to struggle manfully against the ever-increasing encroachments of Poland. Finally, however, by the second Peace of Thorn (October 19, 1466), CASIMIR IV (1444–1492) wrested from them *West Prussia* and *Ermeland*, while *East Prussia* was converted into a fief of the Polish Crown. A subsequent attempt of the Grand Master Albert of Brandenburg to re-conquer West Prussia was defeated by SIGISMUND I (1506–1548), and by the

POLAND & LITHUANIA

BEFORE THE UNION OF LUBLIN 1569.

English Miles

50 0 50 100

Ecclesiastical Provinces of GNESNA, RIGA & LEMBERG in the XV Century

Eng. Miles

0 50 100 200

Long. East 26 of Greenw.

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

subsequent Compact of Craców, 1525, Albert was recognized indeed as Duke of Prussia, but, at the same time, was compelled to do homage for his new possession to Poland. Under SIGISMUND'S successor, SIGISMUND II (AUGUSTUS), 1548–1572, the long-decaying Order of the Sword also fell to pieces; and the last Grand Master, GOTTHARD KETTLER, ceded Livonia to Poland, and did homage for Semigallia and Courland, which latter was erected into a semi-independent Duchy under Polish protection. Poland had now reached the height of her power and territorial extension, her domains embracing the whole of that vast plain which lies between the Baltic, the Oder, the Carpathians, the Dniester, and the Dnieper. Towards the east, however, her limits continued to be somewhat shifting and ill-defined, and in that quarter they can only be approximately determined. SIGISMUND II succeeded, moreover, in still further consolidating his power by uniting the Kingdom of Poland and the Grand Duchy of Lithuania into a single state, with a common Sejm or Diet. This statesmanlike scheme was accomplished, though not without strenuous opposition on the part of the Lithuanians, jealous alike of their religion and their nationality, by the Union of Lublin in 1569.

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XLVIII

POLAND FROM THE UNION OF LUBLIN TO THE THIRD PARTITION, 1569–1795

XLVIII

POLAND FROM THE UNION OF LUBLIN TO THE THIRD PARTITION, 1569–1795

ON the death of SIGISMUND II (1572), the Jagellon dynasty came to an end, and with it the glory and greatness of Poland. The initial cause of her extraordinarily swift decline was the conversion of the monarchy into an aristocratic republic with a nominally elective king at its head, a constitution which left the state entirely in the hands of a corrupt and incapable nobility, every member of which had the right to veto the resolutions of the diet, which was technically sovereign, and even, in case of need, to form an armed confederation against it. Such a system of government naturally tended to disintegrate still further an already distracted state which had always suffered from want of unity and cohesion; and when, towards the end of the seventeenth century, compact and strongly centralized monarchies began to grow up on every side of the Polish republic her fate was inevitable. The evil day was postponed, however, by a succession of lucky accidents, such as the weakness of Poland's neighbours and the greatness of her own rulers. There was no permanent loss of territory till the reign of the second Vasa, WLADISLAW IV (1632–1648), when all *Livonia* north of the Dwina was provisionally ceded to *Sweden* (Treaty of Stuhmsdorf, 1635). Under Wladislaw's brother, JOHN CASIMIR (1648–1669), the Polish republic was brought to the very verge of ruin by simultaneous wars with Sweden, Russia, and the rebellious Cossacks under Chmielnicki. Her territories were overrun by devastating bands, and at one time it seemed as if the Swedish King and the Cossack Hetman would partition the whole country between them. But the death of CHARLES X and the genius of Stephen Czarniecki saved the republic from absolute ruin, and enabled her to obtain honourable terms from her numerous enemies. Still, the sacrifices that had to be made were serious. By the Convention of Wehlau (September 19, 1657), she renounced, in favour of Brandenburg, her suzerainty over *East Prussia*, which was henceforth erected into an independent duchy and in 1701 into a kingdom: *Northern Livonia* was definitively ceded to Sweden (Peace of Oliva, May 3, 1660); and the provinces of *Smolensk*, *Sjewersk*, and part of the *Ukraine* (round Czernichow and south-eastward of it) were surrendered to Russia (Truce of Andrusszowo, January 20, 1667).

Henceforward the decline of Poland proceeded at a more rapid pace. The Kamieniec district of *Podolia* fell for a time into Turkish hands (Peace of Budziak, September 18, 1672), and with the heroic JOHN III, Sobieski (1674–1696), died the last hope of the republic. Under the rule of the Saxon dynasty (1697–1764) Poland subsided into a miserable condition of anarchy and corruption, although that gloomy period is marked by no territorial diminutions; indeed, by the Peace of Karlowitz, 1699, Poland recovered the whole of Podolia. With the accession of STANISLAUS PONIATOWSKI (September 7, 1764) the influence of *Russia*, always considerable, became paramount in Poland, and, to prevent the whole country from falling a prey to the Tsaritsa CATHERINE II, the other two neighbouring Powers, *Austria* and *Prussia*, proposed to Russia a partition of part of it between them. This was no new idea. Charles X of Sweden, a hundred years before, and, after him, the Great Elector, FREDERICK WILLIAM, had already suggested it. But circumstances in the seventeenth century were not ripe for such a drastic solution of the Polish problem, and it was only after Austria had led the way in 1770, by appropriating the insignificant *Zips* district, which had been pawned by Hungary to Poland in 1412, that the three Powers proceeded to a formal partition (Treaty of St. Petersburg, August 5, 1772). By this compact Austria took *Eastern Galicia* and *Lodomeria*; Prussia, *Pomerelia*, *Ermeland*, *Marienburg*, and the greater part of the Palatinates of *Kulm*, *Gniezno*, *Inowraclaw*, and *Posen*; and Russia, the Palatinates of *Mscislaw* and *Witebsk*, part of the Palatinate of *Polock*, and Polish *Livonia*. The portions seized by Russia had been wrested from her centuries before by Lithuania, but Austria and Prussia could claim no right to their portion of the spoil.

The attempt of the Polish patriots to reform the state on a sounder and more modern basis, which bade fair to restore the country to something of its former greatness, was frustrated by the cowardice of the King, and only brought about a fresh partition (1793) between Russia and Prussia, whereby the former seized the Palatinates of *Nowogrodek*, *Minsk*, *Kiev*, *Braclaw*, *Podolia*, and the Polish *Ukraine*, and the latter, *Dobrzyn*, *Cujavia*, and the greater part of *Great Poland*, together with *Thorn* and *Danzig*. This second partition was due solely to the well-founded alarm of the despoilers, lest Poland, renovated and enlightened, might even at the eleventh hour escape her predetermined ruin. The popular rising, under KOSCIUSZKO, against the Russian government furnished the three Powers with an opportunity of blotting out the republic altogether, under the pretext that it had now become a nest of Jacobinism. By the Convention of October 24, 1795, this third partition was definitively arranged: Austria appropriating *Cracow* and its district, *Western Galicia*, and *South Mazovia*; Prussia, *Podlachia*, and the remainder of *Mazovia* with *Warsaw*; and Russia all the rest.

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XLIX

RUSSIA, 1613–1878

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RUSSIA, 1613-1878

DURING the years 1610–1613 the Muscovite Tsardom was in a state of utter prostration. A succession of usurpers, more or less supported by foreign influence, came abruptly to an end in 1610, by the defeat of VASILY SHUISKI, who was carried by the Poles a prisoner to Warsaw, where he died. The very vastness of Muscovy, however, saved her now, as it had saved her before in the time of the Mongol invasions; and, with the election of the first ROMANOV (February 21, 1613), a new and more prosperous era began. Yet she had to make serious territorial sacrifices. Sweden was bought off by the cession of *Karelia* and *Ingria* (Peace of Stolbowo, February 17, 1617), while by the Truce of Dëulino (1618), confirmed by the Peace of Polyanovka (June 5, 1634), Muscovy relinquished her claim upon *Livonia* in favour of Poland, besides ceding to that power *Smolensk*, *Seversk*, and *Tchernigov*. It will be seen from the map that, in consequence of these treaties, Muscovy was completely cut off from the Baltic, besides losing her natural western frontiers along the courses of the rivers Dnieper and Desna, which became, for a time, exclusively Polish streams. But the troubles in Poland, during the middle of the eighteenth century; notably her ruinous wars with Sweden and the uprising of the Cossacks, enabled Muscovy to recover from her ancient rival the territory ceded thirty-three years before; and the Peace of Andruszowo (1667) exactly reversed the Peace of Polyanovka. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the outbreak of the great Northern War gave *Russia*, as she now began to be called, a fresh opportunity of obtaining what had now become indispensable to her further progress; and PETER THE GREAT succeeded in regaining her lost Baltic provinces (as well as Livonia, which had never hitherto belonged to her) after the lapse of more than a century, Sweden, by the Treaty of Nystad (August 30, 1721), ceding to Russia *Livonia*, *Esthonia*, *Ingria*, with the adjacent islands, and the Finnish provinces of *Karelia* and *Viborg*. In another direction, indeed, Peter suffered a loss of territory, being compelled by the Peace of the Pruth (July 23, 1711) to restore to the Porte the fortress of *Azov*, which he had captured in 1696. As some set-off against this, however, may be regarded the acquisition of the Caspian provinces of *Daghestan*, *Gilan*, *Masenderan*, and *Astrabad* from Persia in 1724; but, as these unhealthy districts proved fatal to the Russian armies occupying them, they were retroceded to Shah NADIR by the Tsaritsa ANNE on the eve of the Turkish War of 1735–39, whereby she intended to indemnify herself. Nevertheless the only permanent result of four victorious but costly campaigns was the gaining of Azov and a small district around it, including the delta of the Don. Under the Tsaritsa ELIZABETH (1741–1762) Russia won from Sweden a further strip of Finland, including the fortresses of *Fredrikshamn*, *Willmanstrand*, and *Nyslott*, which advanced her frontier up to the river Kymmene (Peace of Åbo, July 4, 1743); but it was not till the reign of CATHERINE II that conquests on a hitherto unprecedented scale brought the territory of the empire up to very nearly its present limits. The imperial policy of the Tsaritsa involved her in two bloody wars with the Porte. The first, which lasted for six years (1768–74), was concluded by the Peace of Kutchuk Kainargi (July 21, 1774), whereby Russia acquired all the land between the Dnieper and the Bug, including the fortresses of *Kinburn*, *Kertch*, *Yenikale*, and *Perikop* in the *Crimea*. Turkey recognized, moreover, the independence of the Tatars of the Crimea and the *Kuban*, who became from henceforth the subjects of Russia, although their territory was never formally ceded. Turkey, moreover, renounced her suzerainty over the Caucasian tribes, and the long-disputed *Kabardine* district, south of the Terek, was also ceded to Russia. The second Turkish War (1787–1792) proved equally remunerative to the Tsaritsa, Turkey, by the Peace of Jassy (January 9, 1792), ceding to Russia the district between the Bug and the Dniester, with the fortress of *Oczakow*. Thus Russia at last extended her empire to the shores of the Euxine, and attained her natural boundaries towards the south.

In the first of these Turkish wars the Porte was the aggressor, its object being to prevent the threatened partition of Poland, a catastrophe menacing the integrity of the Ottoman empire also. But its intervention came too late, for the three partitioning Powers acted so promptly that no effectual resistance was possible. Russia's share of the spoil of the first partition (1772) consisted of *Polish Livonia*, the palatinates of *Polock*, *Vitebsk*, *Mścislaw*, and part of the palatinate of *Minsk*: the line of the rivers Dvina and Dnieper now separated the two states. A second partition followed in 1793, when Russia annexed *Podolia*, *Polesia*, the *Ukraine*, and a large portion of *Lithuania*; and finally, by the third partition (1795), the remainder of Lithuania, and all Poland eastward of the Bug and Niemen, fell to her share; while Courland was voluntarily ceded by the inhabitants. Most of western Poland, indeed, with *Warsaw*, was annexed by Prussia; but, on the readjustment of Europe at the Congress of Vienna, these provinces were erected into a semi-independent kingdom under Russian protection (it was practically Napoleon's Grand Duchy of Warsaw on a slightly reduced scale), till finally altogether absorbed by Russia, after the unsuccessful Polish rebellion of 1831–32, by the organic statute of February, 1832.

Under Catherine's grandson, ALEXANDER I, Russia rounded off her northern dominions by the conquest of the whole of

Explanation.
Acquisitions are indicated thus—
Under Alexius, 1645-1676
" Peter I, 1689-1725
" Anne, 1730-1740
" Elizabeth, 1741-1762
" Catherine II, 1762-1795
" Alexander I, 1801-1825
Since Alexander I.
RUSSIA
illustrating the
GROWTH OF THE EMPIRE
from the
ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF ROMANOV
1613
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200
Longitude East of Greenwich
10 20 30 40 50 60 70
30 40 50
60
50
40
White Sea
Gulf of Bothnia
G. of Finland
BALTIC SEA
Courland
Samogitia
LITHUANIA
WHITE RUSSIA
BLACK RUSSIA
Podlesia
VOLHYNIA
PODOLIA
THE UKRAINE
RED RUSSIA
POLAND
Masovia
Bessarabia
Sea of Azov
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
Georgian Territory
Mingrelia
Daghestan
Shirvan
Eriwan
Karabakh
Petersburg
Moscow
Archangel
Astrakhan
Kasan
Orenburg
Samara
Saratov
Tsaritsin
Volga
Don
Dniester
Dnieper
Vistula
Oder
Danube
Ural R.
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Finland, including the *Åland Islands*, ceded to her by Sweden by the Peace of Fredrikshamn, 1809; while another Russo-Turkish war resulted in the cession by Turkey (Treaty of Bucharest, 1812) to Russia of *Bessarabia* and the delta of the Danube, which were retained by the latter power till the Crimean War, when ALEXANDER II was obliged to surrender the delta and part of Bessarabia (Peace of Paris, 1856). Finally, however, in consequence of the Russo-Turkish war of 1877–8, Russia recovered the lost portion of Bessarabia as far as the Kilia estuary of the Danube, and Roumania received in exchange the *Dobrudzha* southward of the Danube.

The extension of the Russian Empire towards the south-east has been equally continuous. It was in 1770 that the Russian troops first crossed the Caucasus and took *Kutais*. In 1774 the Peace of Kutchuk Kainargi gave her the line of the Kuban and the Terek. In 1796 the districts of *Derbent* and *Baku* were annexed, and in 1801 *Georgia* was added to the Russian dominions. In 1802 the tribes of the *Ossetes*, in 1803 the *Lesghians*, in 1804 *Mingrelia*, and in 1810 *Imeretia*, were successively conquered. By the Peace of Gulistan (October 24, 1813) Persia ceded to Russia the Khanates of *Karabakh*, *Gandzha*, *Shirvan*, *Derbent*, *Kuba*, *Baku*, and *Talisha*, and, in 1828, the Khanates of *Erivan* and *Nakhitchevan*; while, in the following year, Turkey was compelled to surrender the *Akhaltchikh* district, with the fortresses of *Anapa* and *Poti*, and finally, by the Treaty of Berlin (July 13, 1878), the provinces of *Ardahan*, *Kars*, and *Batum*. Nevertheless it was not till after an almost incessant warfare of nearly half a century (1831–78) that the Caucasian tribes were completely subjugated.

This map and its preface have had the advantage of the revision of Mr. W. R. Morfill, M.A., Reader in Russian in the University of Oxford.

R. NISBET BAIN.

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SCANDINAVIA IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

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SCANDINAVIA IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

HISTORICAL knowledge of Scandinavian geography begins with the missionary expeditions of Ansgar, who in 829, and again in 853, penetrated into Sweden as far as its chief town *Birca*. Later in the same century two Scandinavians, Ohthere (Old Norse *Óttarr*) and Wulfstan (Old Norse *Úlfsteinn*), gave accounts of their voyages to the English King Alfred, who inserted them in his translation of Orosius (*c.* 893). Ohthere, a native of Hálogaland, had sailed along the north and west coasts from the White Sea to Slesvig, while Wulfstan knew the Baltic as far as Estland. The chief sources, however, for the geography of the *Norðrlönd* down to the middle of the thirteenth century are of much later date than this, and are mainly of two kinds. The first class consists of Latin works, such as the history of the see of Hamburg by Adam of Bremen (*c.* 1075), the histories of Norway by the monk Theodoric (*a.* 1190) and an unknown author (of the same or slightly later date), and the Danish history of Saxo Grammaticus (*c.* 1200). The other is composed of numerous Icelandic sagas (written in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries), chiefly relating to Iceland and Norway, but containing much information concerning Denmark and Sweden. In these is also preserved a large quantity of Skaldic verse, dating from about 900 onwards, in which names of places freely occur. For Denmark a valuable record exists in *Kong Valdemars Jordebog*, a list of the landed property belonging to King Valdemar II, drawn up in the year 1231, to which are appended various other pieces of topographical interest.

At the beginning of the ninth century the two peninsulas and numerous adjacent islands, of which Scandinavia (apart from Iceland) consists, were mainly inhabited by four kindred peoples, the Danes, Gauts, Swedes, and Northmen. The Gauts and Swedes, however, were already united under one king, so that the three great divisions now represented by Denmark, Sweden, and Norway were practically established, and the actual extent of each was not materially altered for several centuries. The only inhabitants of a different stock were a few Frisians in the south-western corner of Denmark, and the Finns (i.e. Lapps) who wandered over extensive regions in the north, as yet unoccupied by Swedes or Northmen.

The southern extremity of Scandinavia was at the narrow neck of land lying between the mouth of the Eider and a deep narrow inlet from the Baltic (*Eystrasalt*, the eastern sea), known as *Slésvík* (the bay of Slé). At a later period the limit was clearly marked by a strong rampart known as *Danavirki*, traditionally ascribed to Queen Thyra, wife of King Gorm (*c.* 900). Directly to the south of this, but on the other side of a thinly peopled district broken up by forests, thickets, and marshes, lay the Saxons' country (*Saxland*). Keeping more to the east and along the shores of the Baltic, one came to *Vindland*, against whose inhabitants (*Vindr*, Wends) the Danish kings carried on frequent wars, culminating in the great crusade of Valdemar I (1169).

Denmark. The Danish kingdom (*Danmörk*, *Danaríki*, *Danaveldi*), which began at *Slésvík*, consisted of three main parts: (1) the peninsula extending towards the north (*Jótland*, Jutland, of which the part beyond Limfjord was called *Vendill*, now Vendsyssel), (2) the numerous islands lying to the east of this and forming the western limit of the Baltic, and (3) the southern horn of Sweden, named *Skáney*, or *Skáni* (Skaane), with the two coast-lands *Halland* and *Bleiking*, lying respectively to the north and east. Geographically these districts form part of Sweden, to which they have belonged since the middle of the seventeenth century; but at this period it was easier to reach the islands and Jutland by sea than to cross the woods and waste lands to the east and north.

Though united under one king and bearing the common name of Denmark, the three parts long continued to be strongly marked off from each other. Each had its own traditional customs and usages, and when the Danish laws came to be written down in the thirteenth century different codes were recognized for Jutland (including Fyn), Sjælland, and Skaane. In the same century each of the larger administrative districts into which the country was divided bears the name of *syssel*; these were probably based (to some extent at least) on an older natural grouping of smaller areas, similar in character to the *fylki* in Norway. Each of these smaller districts was a *hæreth* (Old Norse *herað*), which with its assembly (*thing*) of freemen formed the unit of political organization. The towns were partly trading-places, as *Heiðabý* (Hedeby) beside Slésvík, *Ripar* (Ribe) in the west of Jutland, *Árós* (Aarhus) and *Randárós* (Randers) in the east, and *Róiskelda* (Roskilde) at the inner end of *Isafjörð* in Sjælland; or they were old religious and political centres, as *Vébjörg* (Viborg) in Jutland, *Óðinsey* in Fyn, and *Lund* in Skaane.

The introduction of Christianity into Denmark by Ansgar, in the first half of the ninth century, was marked by the erection of churches in Hedeby and Ribe, while that in Aarhus is ascribed to a viking Frode. Before 950 King Harald allowed Archbishop Adeldag of Bremen to appoint bishops to these three sees, and did much to advance the cause of the Church. Other bishoprics were created in course of time, with various changes in their number and extent, until their final organization under Svend Estridsen (†1075). The sees were thenceforward eight in number: Hedeby (or Slesvig), Ribe, Aarhus, Viborg, Vendel (or Hjörning), Odense, Roskilde, and Lund.

Sweden. The Swedish kingdom (*Svíaríki*, *Svíaveldi*) comprised two peoples with distinctive names, the *Svíar* and *Gautar*, acknowledging one king, but otherwise preserving a jealous independence of each other. Between the Danish districts in the south-west of the country and the land of the Gauts lay various scattered settlements, as *Finneiði* (Finvid, Finwed), *Verandi* (Värend), and *Njudung*: these together formed the 'small lands,' *Smálönd* (Smaaland). To the north

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of these, beyond the extensive forest of *Holavið* (Holaved), lay Gautland, divided into an eastern and western portion by Lake Vettern. Closely connected with it were the islands of *Eyland* and *Gotland* on the eastern coast. To the north-west the Gauts had expanded beyond the great lake Venern into *Vermaland*, which continued to some extent to be debatable ground between Sweden and Norway. From the *Svíar* or Swedes proper the Gauts were separated by the forests Tived and Kolmaard, a natural boundary emphasized by the terms *norðan skog* (north of the forest = Swedish) and *sunnan skog* (= Gautish). Before *Suðrmannaland* and *Næríki* were properly peopled, Gautland was apparently considered to extend to the lake *Lögrinn* (Mälaren); at a later period these districts formed part of *Svíthjóð*. The original seat of the *Svíar*, however, was to the north of Mälaren in the level and fertile *Uppland*, later known as the *Folkland* (pl.), three in all, each named according to the number of 'hundreds' it contained, viz. *Tiundaland* (10), *Áttundaland* (8), and *Fjaðrundaland* (4). Here were the old religious centres *Sigtúnir* and *Uppsalir*, the latter also the royal seat after the abandonment of *Birca* (Björkö, on the south side of Mälaren). From this centre the Swedes spread not only south, and west (into *Vestmannaland*), but also towards the north, occupying *Járnberaland* in the interior and *Gestríkaland* on the coast. Beyond the latter, and separated from it by the forest Ödmaard, lay *Helsingjaland*, also a Swedish settlement, though partly peopled by Northmen from Jamtaland. Still further north on the coast were *Meðalpaði* and *Angrmannaland*, marking the furthest advance of the Swedes into the regions of the nomadic Finnar, who were only gradually pushed north from their original haunts.

As already mentioned, all these districts were subject to the Swedish king, but in the election of the monarch the fact that his kingdom was a confederacy was strongly marked. The *Svíar* chose the king, who was first elected by the three Folklands, and then accepted by the lawmen of the various districts in a fixed order. After this it was necessary for him to make the round of his kingdom, to ride his *eriks gata*, or 'oath-taking (*eið-reks*) journey,' as the phrase most probably implies. In doing so he followed the course of the sun, going from Uppsala through Södermanland, East Gautland, Smaaland, West Gautland, Nerike, Vestmanland, and so back to Uppsala. At fixed points on the frontier of each district he was met by its lawman and leading men, and mutual oaths were taken. Until this had been done it was unlawful for him to enter the district, and so late as 1130 the West Gauts killed a certain Ragnvald who, after his election by the Swedes, had omitted to observe this formality.

Except in connexion with the missionary work of Ansgar, little is known of Swedish history prior to the eleventh century, and even after that date there are many periods of which only the scantiest knowledge can be obtained. While playing a certain part in the history of Norway and Denmark, the Swedes and Gauts were chiefly engaged in internal struggles, the result of rival claimants to the throne, and of the conflict between Christianity and heathenism. The new religion was strongest in West Gautland, with Skara as its centre, while the Swedes were more attached to the old faith. Only towards the end of the eleventh century was the heathen temple at Uppsala destroyed by King Inge, a West Gaut. The first organization of the Swedish Church belongs to the reign of Sverker (1134–56), who owed his election to the East Gauts. The first monasteries were erected at this time, and bishoprics were created at Linköping and Old Uppsala. A papal legate, Nicolas Breakspear (afterward Pope Adrian IV), held an assembly at Linköping in 1152 with the object of appointing an archbishop for Sweden, but local jealousies prevented the immediate realization of the scheme. Sverker's successor, Erik the Saint, carried out a crusade against Finland, and the first bishop of Uppsala, Henrik, became the patron saint of that country, as Erik did of Sweden itself. In 1163 Uppsala received its first archbishop, whose authority extended not only over Sweden, but also over Finland and the Norwegian Jamtaland. Though the religious conflict thus came to an end, the political strife still continued, the houses of Erik and Sverker constantly supplying rival claimants to the throne. The greatest event of these struggles was the battle of Lena in West Gautland (1208), in which Sverker II, assisted by a large Danish force, was defeated with great loss. In the end both Sverker's and Erik's race died out, and in 1250 the throne passed to Earl Birger's son Valdemar, under whom Sweden began to take a more prominent place in the history of northern Europe; the foundations of Swedish dominion in Finland had, however, been already laid by the successful crusading expedition of Birger against the Tavastir in 1249.

Norway. Ancient Norway, like ancient Denmark, covered part of modern Sweden. Its southern limit was at the *Gautelf*, and all the east coast of the *Vík* north from this was Norwegian territory. In the north-east, too, the Northmen had anticipated the Swedes in occupying *Herdalir* and *Jamtaland*. Beyond the latter district only the west coast was peopled by Northmen, all that lay east of the *Kjöl* being left to the wandering Finns, who paid tribute to their more powerful neighbours.

The oldest division of Norway (*Norveg* or *Noreg*, *Noregsríki*, *Noregsveldi*) was into *fylki* or folk-lands, originally independent of each other and ruled by separate kings or earls. Some parts of the country had names of wider range, covering several fylkis. Thus the four districts lying on both sides of the great southern bay (*vík*) were grouped under the common name of *Víkin*. To the north of this were the *Upplönd* (pl.) comprising five fylkis. To the west of the Vík and the Upplönd lay a number of separate districts (of which those on the coast may have been the original *Norveg* or 'north way'). Round the branching inlet which interrupts the coast between 63° and 64° were eight fylkis bearing the general name of *Thrándheim*. Beyond this lay *Naumudal*, and then the long narrow strip of coast known as *Hálogaland*.

In many cases there were special names for the inhabitants of these districts, as the *Háleygir* in Hálogaland, *Raumsdœlir* in Raumsdal, *Sygnir* in Sogn, *Rygir* in Rogaland; and it is from the genitives plural of these that the full *fylki*-names are formed, as *Háleygjafylki*, *Raumsdœlafylki*, *Sygnafylki*, *Rygjafylki*. These forms, however, were less common in ordinary use than the simple *Hálogaland*, &c., except in the case of the fylkis in Thrándheim.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries the division into fylkis was largely superseded by that into *sýslur*, administrative and fiscal districts whose exact boundaries were only fixed by degrees. These again were subordinate to five larger treasury districts, four of which had their centres at *Niðarós*, *Björgvin*, *Túnsberg* and *Ósló*, while the fifth covered the district from *Svínasund* to *Gautelf*.

Another important division of Norway was that into *thing*-districts. Each *herað*, the smallest division of the fylki, had its own assembly; so had the larger divisions (halves, thirds, or quarters), as well as the whole fylki itself. Above these again were the four (originally three) great law-things (*lög-thing*), each having authority in a definite district. Two of these occupied the west coast, and were known as the *Gulathingslög* and *Frostuthingslög*, the places of assembly being at *Gula* in Sogn and *Frosta* in Thrándheim; the

dividing line between these was the boundary between Sunnmœri and Raumsdal. The Upplands had their assembly at *Eiðsvellir* in Raumaríki, and formed the *Eiðsivathingslög*; while the Vík (including Thelamörk and Numadal) formed the *Borgarthingslög*, named from Borg or Sarpsborg. At a later period this division into thing-districts was rendered less important by the appointment of official lawmen with jurisdictions of smaller extent.

The unification of Norway belongs to the historic period. In the ninth century Halfdan Svarti brought the Vík and Upplands under his rule. His son Harald carried on the work by pushing northward and subduing Thrándheim and Hálogaland. The western fylkis proved a harder task, which was ended in Harald's favour by the battle of *Hafrsfjörð* (in Rogaland) in 872. The victory, however, deprived the country of many of its leading men, who refused to submit to Harald's rule and emigrated to the British Isles or Iceland. From this time forward Norway formed a single kingdom, although the throne was frequently a subject of contention between rival claimants, and the name and power of king was often shared by two or more members of the royal race. Out of this rivalry civil war naturally arose from time to time, culminating in the century of internal strife which preceded the rise of a strong monarchy under Hákon Hákonsson (1240–63). During the quieter periods, however, and sometimes even in the midst of conflict, great advances were made in several directions. Of prime importance for the material progress of the country was the growth of the towns (*kaupstaðir*); the chief of these in the thirteenth century were *Niðarós*, *Véey*, and *Borgund* on the north-west coast, *Kaupang*, *Björgvin*, and *Stafangr* on the west, *Skíðan*, *Túnsberg*, *Osló*, and *Borg* in the Vík, with *Marstrand* and *Konungahella* at the meeting-point of the three Scandinavian kingdoms.

It was not till the middle of the twelfth century that the Church in Norway was properly organized. Hákon the Good (934–60) and the sons of Eiríx Blóðöx (960–9) were Christians, but the first serious attempt to introduce the new faith was made by Ólaf Tryggvason (995–1000) and his bishop, Sigurð. The result was largely superficial, and the work was more thoroughly done by Ólaf Haraldsson († 1030), in whose time churches were erected in all or most of the fylkis. Little more than a year after his death Ólaf was recognized as a Saint, and his shrine at Niðarós became the great religious centre of Norway. The three bishops who were the heads of the Norwegian Church had, however, no fixed sees till the days of Ólaf Kyrri (1066–93), when one was established at *Niðarós*, another at *Selja* (soon afterwards transferred to *Björgvin*), and the third at *Osló*. King Eysteinn (1103–22) was a zealous church-builder, and in his days a new bishopric was established at *Stafangr*. The middle of the twelfth century saw the founding of many monasteries, and in 1152 Nicolas Breakspear came as papal legate to Niðarós. He created that see into an archbishopric over the whole of Norway, and appointed the bishop of Stafangr to be its first occupant. At the same time part of the see of Osló was erected into the bishopric of *Hamar* (in the Upplönd). Besides these five sees in Norway itself, the archbishop was the superior of the bishops of *Skálholt* and *Hólar* in Iceland, and of those in the *Hebrides*, *Orkneys*, *Færöes*, and *Greenland*.

Iceland. The colonization of Iceland began in 874 with the landing of Ingólf, who finally settled at Reykjavík. For the next sixty years a steady stream of colonists (chiefly from western Norway) flowed into the island, and spread over the inhabitable parts. As soon as the land was fully peopled, the local *thing* of the old country was revived in the new home; and provision was made for such central government as was required by the institution of a general yearly assembly (*althingi*), for which a place of meeting was selected in the south-west of the island. The chief power in this assembly was in the hands of the *goðar* (local chiefs and temple-priests); after 964 A.D. these were 39 in number, representing the four quarters (*fjórðungar*) into which the island was divided in that year (i.e. nine for each quarter, with three additional for the north). These *goðar* nominated the legislative council (*lögrétta*), as well as the members of the law-courts. At the head of all stood the law-speaker (*lögsögumaðr*), at first elected for life, at a later period for a renewable term of three years.

When Christianity was adopted (in 1000), the *goðar* naturally lost their power as priests, but retained their temporal authority; twelve new ones were in fact created in 1004, when a supreme court of justice was instituted. In this form the republic lasted for about two centuries and a half, till King Hákon in Norway was able to persuade the Icelanders to recognize him as their over-lord (1262).

Iceland's first bishop, Ísleif, was ordained in 1056. His son and successor, Gissur, fixed his see at *Skálholt* in the south-west of the country. In 1106 a new bishopric for the northern half of the island was established at *Hólar*. These places, as well as the homes of many leading men, became centres of learning, as did also the monasteries, which were founded in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. In Iceland alone of the Scandinavian countries did a national literature flourish, rich especially in works of a historical and biographical character; and this literary activity was carried on successfully even in the stormiest period of the later commonwealth, the age of the Sturlungs. Almost all our knowledge of Scandinavian history prior to the thirteenth century is due to the enormous mass of tradition thus preserved and written down in Iceland.

For the sake of uniformity, the names on the accompanying map have been given in the Old Northern form in which they appear in the Icelandic sagas, although those in Denmark and Sweden had by the thirteenth century undergone some change in the direction of the modern forms. In the Latin works mentioned above, the names of places are usually given in a latinized form more or less resembling the original; in most cases the only change is the addition of a termination (*-ia*, *-um*, &c.), to enable the name to be inflected as a Latin noun. The following is a list of the more important of these, together with the form under which they appear on the map:

Alaburgia, Álaborg (D).
Albia, Gautelf (N.-S).
Arhusia, *Arusium* } Árós (D).
Asloa, *-oia*, Osló (N).
Bergæ, *Bergînum*, *Bergoniæ* } Björgvin (N).
Borgunda, Borgundarholm (D).
Calmarna, Kalmarnir (S).
Dacia, Danmörk.
Eidora, *Eydora* } Egðera (D).
Finmarchia, Finnmörk (D).
Finnedi, *Finnia* } Finneiði (S).
Fionia, *Fiunis* } Fjón (D).
Gothelba, Gautelf (N.-S).
Gothia, Gautland (S).
Gud-, *Gutlandia*, Gotland (S).
Halogia, Hálogaland (N).
Hethmarchia, Heiðmörk (N).
Holmus, *Hulmus*, Borgundarholm (D).
Holsatia, Holtsetaland.
Jalunga, Jalángr (D).
Jathria, Jaðar (N).
Jutia, Jótland (D).
Lappia, Kvenland.
Lethra, Hleiðra (D).
Liuthusia, Ljóðhus (D).
Lundia, *Lundona* } Lund (D).
Lymicum mare, *Lymicus sinus* } Limafjörð (D).
Moena, Mön (D).
Nordmannia, *Nordveia*, *Norvegia* } Norveg.
Ölandia, Eyland (S).
Ostrogothia, Eystra Gautland (S).
Pleicania, Bleiking (S).
Randrusia, Randárós (D).
Ringstadium, Hringstaðir (D).
Ripa, *-æ*, Ripar (D).
Roskildia, Róiskelda (D).
Samsa, Sámsey (D).
Scania, *Sconia* } Skáney (D).
Sæ-, *Se-*, *Sialandiâ*, Sjáland (D).
Sictona, *-tuna*, Sigtúnir (S).
Sinus orientalis, Víkin (N).
Slesvicus, Slésvík (D).
Suecia, *Suedia*, *Sueonia* } Svíthjód.
Throndemia, Thrándheim (N).
Thud, Thjóða (D).
Ubsala, *-sola*, Uppsalir (S).
Verendia, Verandi (S).
Wendila, Vendill (D).
Wermia, *Wermilania* } Vermaland (S).
Westragothia, Vestra Gautland (S).
Wiberga, Vébjörg (D).

W. A. CRAIGIE.

LI

SCANDINAVIA, FROM 1521 TO 1815

LI

SCANDINAVIA, FROM 1521 TO 1815

FOR some time after the election of GUSTAVUS VASA (1521), which virtually annulled the Union of Calmar and marks the beginning of modern Scandinavian history, the boundaries of the three northern kingdoms continued to be the same as they were during the Union (1397–1521). These boundaries, however, were somewhat indefinite even in the Scandinavian Peninsula itself. The southern provinces of modern *Sweden—Bleking*, *Scania*, and *Halland*—which were Swedish for a short time before the Union, had been recognized as Danish during the Union; the central provinces of *Jämteland* (or *Jemtland*) and *Herjedalen*, although forming ecclesiastically part of the diocese of Upsala, now belonged to Norway, as was also the case with the district of *Särna* in the Dales; the wealthy island of *Gothland*, moreover, had passed into the possession of Denmark; but, on the other hand, Sweden claimed *Finmark*, the northernmost province of Norway, apparently by virtue of various vague, ancient traditions, subsequently emphasized by the Treaty of Teusin (May 18, 1595), when Russia, besides making other concessions, presently to be mentioned, ceded to Sweden all her part of Finmark situated between the Varanger and the Malanger Fjords. Now, although Russia had clearly no right to surrender territory which she herself never actually possessed, and although Denmark-Norway (for till 1815 the two kingdoms were one State) always questioned the claims of Sweden upon Finmark, yet inasmuch as Sweden did not formally surrender such claims in favour of Denmark-Norway till the Peace of Knäred (January 28, 1613), and then did so only for a consideration, it seems reasonable to regard the disputed province as belonging rather to Sweden than to Norway up to that date. Most of the other territorial changes during the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries were also, on the whole, favourable to Denmark. Thus the arbitration Congress of Stettin (December 13, 1570) awarded the island of *Gothland* to Denmark, and transferred the provinces of Jämteland and Herjedalen from the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of Upsala to that of Nidaros (Trondhjem). These two central provinces, together with the island of *Ösel*, were won back, indeed, by Sweden during the Swedo-Danish war of 1611–1613; but they were restored to Denmark by the above-mentioned Peace of Knäred, in exchange for *Öland*, which the Danes had captured. From this period till 1645 Denmark must still be regarded as the dominant power of Scandinavia; but the disastrous war of 1644, brought about by Denmark's jealousy of Sweden's continental progress, reversed the positions of the two States, and by the Peace of Brömsebro (August 13, 1645) Denmark ceded Jämteland, Herjedalen, Gothland, and Ösel to Sweden, besides pawning Halland to her for thirty years. It will be observed that by this treaty Sweden gained at last her natural western frontier, the great Kolen range, henceforth separating her from Norway. The attempt of Denmark in 1657 to recover her hegemony in the north only led to fresh disaster. CHARLES X's sudden and marvellous passage of the frozen Belt paralyzed all resistance, and the Danish monarch was forced to sign the humiliating treaties of Tosterup (February 8) and of Roskilde (February 18, 1658), whereby he ceded to Sweden not only the provinces of *Scania*, *Bleking*, *Halland*, and *Bohus*, but also the central Norwegian province of *Trondhjem* (thus cutting Norway in two), and the isle of *Bornholm*. Trondhjem and Bornholm were indeed recovered at the subsequent Peace of Copenhagen (May 27, 1660), but the Scanian provinces, the wealthiest in Scandinavia, which had belonged to Denmark time out of mind, were irretrievably lost to her, and thus Sweden now also gained her natural boundaries to the south, which she has ever since retained. The long subsequent separation of *Norway* from Denmark in 1815 and her simultaneous union with Sweden was a purely political change, bringing no territorial modification along with it.

The rise and fall of Sweden's extra-Scandinavian empire now remains to be briefly explained. Her earliest won and latest lost possession was the *Grand Duchy of Finland*, the eastern limits of which continued to be very vague until the Peace of Teusin (May 18, 1595) and the subsequent confirmatory Peace of Viborg (February 28, 1609), when Sweden retroceded to Russia *Kexholm*, the easternmost province of the Grand Duchy, Russia, on her side, recognizing Sweden's claims upon *Esthonia*, including *Narva*. Sweden had first gained a footing in Esthonia in 1561 by the capture of *Reval*, and her right to that portion of the bishopric of Reval which had not already been ceded to Denmark was recognized by the Congress of Stettin in 1570. The wars of CHARLES IX and GUSTAVUS II still further extended her dominions in those parts. By the Peace of Stolbova (February 27, 1617), she recovered from Russia the province of *Kexholm*, winning besides *Ingria* (*Ingermanland*) on both sides of the Neva, including the fortress of *Nöteborg* (afterwards Schlüsselburg), the key of Finland; while Russia at the same time renounced all her claims upon *Esthonia* and *Livonia*. This treaty marks the extreme extension of the Swedish empire towards the east. In the days of GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS this eastern boundary was, somewhat arbitrarily perhaps, taken to include the whole outline of Lake Ladoga; but from the Peace of Kardis (June 21, 1661) onwards, a zigzag line, drawn from Salmis on the north of Ladoga, through the centre of the lake to Nöteberg on the south more exactly represents the actual boundary. The Peace

THE SCANDINAVIAN PENINSULA
1521 - 1648
English Miles
0 50 100 200

SCANDINAVIA
1658 - 1815
English Miles
50 0 50 100

Longitude East of Greenwich

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh

of Oliva (May 3, 1660) with Poland finally established Sweden in the possession of Livonia. Sweden's territory at the height of her power, including her acquisitions at the Peace of Westphalia (October 24, 1648)—i. e. *Upper Pomerania* with the islands of *Rugen* and *Usedom*, a small strip of *Lower Pomerania*, including the towns of *Stettin*, *Garz*, *Damm*, *Gollnow*, and the isle of *Wollin*, the town of *Wismar* with *Poel* and *Neukloster*, and the bishoprics of *Bremen* and *Verden*,—comprised 16,800 geographical square miles, thus somewhat exceeding in extent the whole Spanish monarchy under Philip II, and being nearly 7,000 square miles larger than the modern German empire. The Baltic was not then as now a boundary separating her from other countries, but a mediterranean lake uniting together her scattered domains. But this outwardly imposing empire had no real cohesion or stability, and it was impossible for so poor and sparsely populated a country as Sweden to continue for long to dominate Germany and keep the hegemony of the north at the same time, though an extraordinary succession of great rulers postponed the evil day. Even such a trifling defeat as Fehrbellin, in 1675, was sufficient to draw after it the loss of all Sweden's German possessions, and it was but the casual protection of Louis XIV in 1679 (Treaties of Nijmegen, February 5, and St. Germain, June 29) which enabled her to recover them for a time. But it was not for long. Forty years later, at the end of the great Northern War, Sweden was obliged to cede Bremen and Verden to Hanover (Peace of Stockholm, November 20, 1719), and Upper Pomerania as far as the Peene, with the islands of Usedom and Wollin, to Prussia (Treaty of Stockholm, February 1, 1720). The following year, by the Peace of Nystad (August 30, 1721), she practically surrendered the hegemony of the north to Russia, who acquired by this treaty Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, with the adjacent islands, and the greater part of the north-eastern Finnish provinces of Kexholm and Viborg, including the fortress of that name. Twenty-three years later (Peace of Åbo, August 7, 1743) a further cession of Finnish territory by Sweden brought the Russian border up to the river Kymmene; and finally, by the Peace of Fredrikshamn (September 17, 1809), Sweden ceded to Russia the whole of the Grand Duchy, together with the Åland islands, which did not properly belong to it.

R. NISBET BAIN.

LII

THE NETHERLANDS

LII

THE NETHERLANDS

THE physical geography of the Netherlands has suffered more changes than that of most countries. Many rivers have altered their course; many islands have been separated or joined together; and the coastline and inland waters have continually changed from time to time. In a single map it would be impossible to indicate these successive modifications. We have preferred therefore to depict the Netherlands as they were at a definite date, when united by the Emperor Charles V under his immediate rule (1543). To this we prefix a brief description of their territorial history, in which we have necessarily limited ourselves to the more general facts.

I. **The gradual union of the Seventeen Provinces.** In the fifteenth century the Dukes of Burgundy possessed, besides their duchy and the County of Burgundy (Franche-Comté), Flanders and Artois (from 1384). Philip the Good acquired Namur (1421–1429); Brabant, with Limburg and the Over-Maas Lands, Antwerp and Mechlin (1430); Hainault, with Holland and Zeeland (1428–1433); Luxemburg (1443–1451), and the towns on the Somme in Picardy (1435). Charles the Bold bought Alsace (1469) and conquered Gelderland with Zutphen (1471) and Lorraine (1475); but by his death in 1477 all these countries returned to their previous possessors. Louis XI of France immediately invaded the territories of Charles's daughter, Mary of Burgundy, and by the peace of Arras (1482) he acquired both Burgundies and Artois; the towns on the Somme he had recovered in 1477. His son, Charles VIII, by the treaty of Senlis (1493) surrendered Franche-Comté and Artois to Maximilian, the widower of Mary and the regent of the Netherlands for his son, Philip the Handsome. The Emperor Charles V, his successor, added to his paternal inheritance the following countries in the Netherlands: Friesland (1524); Groningen, with the Ommelanden, Westwoldingerland, and Drenthe (1536); the secular territory of the bishopric of Utrecht, comprising Utrecht and Overijssel (1528); and finally Gelderland and Zutphen (1543). He conquered also Tournai and the Tournésis (1521), and annexed the secular territory of the Bishop of Cambrai (1543), but these countries were not regarded as parts of the Netherlands.

The Seventeen Provinces of the Netherlands were then made up of four duchies (*Brabant*, *Limburg*, *Luxemburg*, and *Gelderland*), seven counties (*Flanders*, *Artois*, *Hainault*, *Namur*, *Zeeland*, *Holland*, and *Zutphen*), five lordships (*Friesland*, *Groningen*, *Overijssel*, *Utrecht*, and *Mechlin*), and one marquisate (*Antwerp*). These territories were broken up by the lands of the Bishop of Liége and of the Abbat of Stavelot. The Netherlands, together with Franche-Comté (which was separated from them by Lorraine), formed the *Circle of Burgundy* in the administrative system of the Empire as organized by Maximilian.

Most of the Low Countries were Imperial fiefs; but two, Flanders and Artois, were French. By the treaties of Madrid (1526) and Cambrai (1529) all feudal ties were broken between those territories and the French crown, and they became, like the others, dependent in name upon the Empire, though the seventeen practically formed a distinct state. [Ecclesiastically all these lands lay in the provinces of Rheims and Cologne, except that part of Luxemburg belonged to Treves (see Plates XXXVII, LVII). In 1559 *Cambrai*, *Mechlin*, and *Utrecht* were raised to archbishoprics and made the heads of new provinces. Of the bishoprics, Thérouanne had already been destroyed and its see removed to Boulogne; but many new ones were now created, although the progress of the reform movement prevented them all from maintaining their position: these are indicated on the map by the sign ♱.]

II. **The disruption of the Netherlands and the formation of the Dutch Republic.** During the reign of Philip II, the attempt of the Netherlands to shake off the Spanish yoke failed in the Southern provinces, but the Northern succeeded in establishing themselves as an entirely independent state, the *United Netherlands*, consisting of *Holland*, *Zeeland*, *Utrecht*, *Gelderland* (the three Northern quarters) and *Zutphen*, *Overijssel*, *Friesland*, *Groningen*, with the *Ommelanden* and *Drenthe*. The States General of the new Republic soon afterwards acquired also some parts of the Southern or *Spanish Netherlands*, which they called *Lands of the Generality* or *Staats-Vlaanderen* and *Staats-Brabant* (comprising the territories of Sluis, Aardenburg, Oostburg, Biervliet, Terneuzen; the marquisate of Bergen-op-Zoom; and the barony of Breda). These they retained by the Twelve Years' Truce of 1609. After the expiry of this truce further additions were made, and the peace of Münster (1648) confirmed the Dutch Republic in the possession of Staats-Vlaanderen, as increased by the territory of Hulst, and of Staats-Brabant, by the mayorship of 's Hertogenbosch and the land of Cuyk. Finally it obtained also (by treaties of

THE NETHERLANDS

since their union under CHARLES V. 1543.

English Miles

10 5 0 10 20 30 40 50

Explanation

External boundaries of the Netherlands, together with Cambrésis and Tournésis (held by Charles V.) and the ecclesiastical principalities of Liège and Stavelot

Internal boundaries

Southern border of Dutch Republic after the treaties of 1648 and 1661.

Southern border of Catholic Netherlands after the treaties of 1713, 1714 and 1715

C. County — Bp. Bishopric
D. Duchy — Abp. Archbishopric

Battles

Archbishopries after 1559
Bishopries " "
Canals before 1815
The Barrier Towns

THE MAASLANDS after the treaties of 1783 and 1785

Eng Miles 0 5 10 20 30

Prussian Austrian Dutch Republic

STAVELOT

THE SIEGE OF ANTWERP, 1584 & 1585.

Eng Miles 0 1 2

Longitude East 5 of Greenwich

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

1648 and 1661) a part of the Maas lands, which became *Staats-Limburg*, including Maastricht and the three quarters of Valkenburg (Fauquemont), Dalhem, and Herzogenrade (Rolduc).

III. **The Spanish (afterwards Austrian) Netherlands.** The repeated defeats which Spain suffered at the hands of Louis XIV involved the sacrifice bit by bit of portions of the Southern Netherlands.

1. By the peace of the Pyrenees (1659) France gained almost the whole of Artois; Gravelines, Bourbourg, Saint-Venant; Avesnes, Le Quesnoy, Landrecies; Mariembourg, Philippeville, Montmédy, Damvillers, Thionville, Carignan, Marville.

2. By the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668) France obtained French Flanders (Lille, Douay, Orchies); Tournai and Tournésis; Bergues, Veurne (Furnes), Courtrai, Oudenaarde, Armentières; Binche, Charleroi, Ath.

3. By the peace of Nimeguen (Nijmegen, 1678) France gained (besides Franche-Comté) the rest of Artois (Aire and Saint-Omer); Cambrésis; Charlemont (Givet); Cassel, Bailleul, Poperinge, Wervicq, Warneton, Yperen, Bouchain, Valenciennes, Condé, Bavay, Maubeuge (but she restored to Spain Courtrai, Oudenaarde, Ath, Binche, and Charleroi); the Dutch obtained some small towns of the Spanish Maas lands, Fallais, Hermalle, Argenteau, and Olne.

4. By the truce of Ratisbon (1684) France had Bouvignes, Beaumont, Chimay, Luxemburg, Oudenaarde.

5. By the peace of Ryswick (Rijswijk, 1697) Louis XIV gave back some of his conquests, as Mons, Bouvignes, Luxemburg, as well as some conquests which he had made in the interval;

6. By the peace of Utrecht (1713), Louis XIV obtained Béthune, but lost Tournai, Warneton, Wervicq, Yperen, and Veurne; and important changes were made in the upper quarter of Gelderland (the Maas lands). The Dutch Republic obtained Venloo, Stevenswert, Montfoort, Neustadt (*Staats-Oppergelderland*). The King of Prussia obtained, in exchange for Orange (which was confirmed to France), another piece of Upper Gelderland, namely Gelre and Kessel; and Austria, to whom the Southern Netherlands were assigned, received the remaining part.

7. By the peace of Rastadt (1714) Austria acquired the Southern or Catholic Netherlands;

8. By the Barrier treaty (1715) the Dutch Republic received the right of placing garrisons in the following towns: Namur, Tournai, Meenen, Warneton, Yperen, Veurne, and the fortress of Knocke; and Dendermonde received an Austrian-Dutch garrison.

Once again in the eighteenth century the boundaries of Northern and Southern Netherlands were changed. In 1785, by the treaty of Fontainebleau, Joseph II obtained the forts of Lillo and Liefkenshoek on the Scheld; and in the Maas land he received some small towns,—Dalhem, Fallais, Olne, Hermal, Argenteau, but restored Obicht, Papenhoven, and the southern part of Valkenburg.

IV. **Modern changes.** 1. During the eighteenth century the Austrian Netherlands were conquered three times by France: first in 1745 (recovered by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748); secondly in 1792 (recovered the next year); thirdly in 1794, when the ecclesiastical principalities of Liége and Stavelot were also conquered. The peace of Campo Formio (1797) definitively gave these countries to France. The United Netherlands were also visited by the French armies and their constitution changed. The Batavian Republic was established on the example of the French. In 1798 the provinces were changed into departments, which received their names from physical features; but in 1801 the old names were restored. The Republic was in 1807 made into the Kingdom of Holland, with the same boundaries as those of the Republic, except that *East Friesland* was included within its borders, and that the harbour of Flushing was retained in Napoleon's hands. Holland was next (in 1811) incorporated in the French Empire, and new names were again given to the departments. In the Southern Netherlands and Liége the names of the departments established at the French conquest were retained. The following table shows roughly their agreement with the provinces as now existing :—

Frise	*Friesland.*
Ems occidental . . .	*Groningen* and *Drenthe.*
Bouches de l'Yssel . .	*Overijssel.*
Yssel supérieur . . .	*Gelderland.*
Zuiderzee	*North Holland* and *Utrecht.*
Bouches de la Meuse .	*South Holland.*
Bouches de l'Escaut . .	*Zeeland.*
Bouches du Rhin . . .	*North Brabant.*
Escaut	*East Flanders.*
Lys	*West Flanders.*
Deux Nèthes	*Antwerp.*
Dyle	*South Brabant.*
Jemappes	*Hainault.*
Sambre et Meuse . . .	*Namur.*
Forêts	*Luxemburg*, including the Grand Duchy.
Ourthe	*Liége.*
Meuse inférieure . . .	*Limburg* (Belgian and Dutch).

2. After the battle of Leipzig the French were expelled, and the Netherlands, Northern and Southern, were administered by the Prince of Orange. The Congress of Vienna united the whole into one *Kingdom of the Netherlands*. The southern boundaries were the same as in 1790, and have continued so since. But on the eastern border some territories were exchanged with Prussia. In 1830 the southern provinces fell off from the northern, and were established as a kingdom under Leopold I (of Saxe-Coburg). The treaty of twenty-four articles, finally accepted by both nations in 1839, fixed the boundaries between the two countries: Limburg was divided, and the eastern part of Luxemburg was erected into a grand duchy.

J. FREDERICHS.

LIII

FRANCE, LOTHARINGIA, AND BURGUNDY IN THE ELEVENTH AND TWELFTH CENTURIES

LIII.

FRANCE, LOTHARINGIA, AND BURGUNDY IN THE ELEVENTH AND TWELFTH CENTURIES.

THE accompanying plate is intended to illustrate French history under the early kings of the house of Capet down to the death of PHILIP AUGUSTUS in 1223. The large map in its main features represents France in the early years of the reign of HENRY I, after the *duchy of Burgundy*, which under his father Robert the Pious had formed part of the royal domain, had been ceded by him to his younger brother Robert. The somewhat scattered direct domain of the house of Capet, whose most compact portion consisted of territories grouped round the two cities of Paris and Orleans, had been increased by the acquisition of the direct domain of *Melun* (Meledunum) in 1016, of *Paris*, and of *Senlis* (Silvanectis), the two former of which certainly and the latter probably had been previously enfeoffed; and *Dreux* (Drocae), and *Montreuil* (Monasteriolum); while they inherited from their Carolingian predecessors on the throne the small domain of *Attigny* (Attiniacum) on the eastern frontier.

The chief feudatories of the crown of France were the dukes of *Burgundy* (Burgundia), *Guienne* (Aquitania), *Gascony* (Wasconia), *Normandy* (Normannia); the counts of *Brittany* (Brittania), *Flanders* (Flandrensis C.), *Toulouse* (Tolosanus C.), *Rouergue* (Rutenicus C.), *Blois* (Blesensis C.), and *Anjou* (Andegavensis C.). Most of these great vassals had their own under-vassals, who ruled over lordships of considerable extent. There were many other smaller vassals who held directly from the crown, such as the counts of *Nevers* Nivernensis C.) and *Auxerre* (Autissiodorensis C.), *Sens* (Senonensis C.), *Bourbon* (Borbonensis C.).

The great feudal lords had each their own vassals. Among those of the duke of *Burgundy* were the counts of Troyes (Trecensis C.)—for a part only of his extensive fiefs,—Châlon (Cabilonensis C.), and Mâcon (Matisconensis C.), and the seignors of Sémur (Sinemurus) and Beaujeu (Bellijocus). Among those of the duke of *Guienne*, the count of Anjou for Saintes (Santonae) and Loudun (Losdunum), the counts of Angoulême (Engolismensis C.), La Marche (Marcensis C.), Auvergne (Arvernia), Brioude (Brivate), Velay (Velavensis C.), the viscounts of Limoges (Lemovicensis V.), Turenne (Torenensis V.), Thouars (Thoarcensis V.), and Châtelherault (Castellum Airaldi), and the seignors of Déols (Dolensis S.) and Issoudun (Exoldunensis S.). Among those of the duke of *Gascony*, the counts of Fezensac (Fedenciacus), Astarac (Astaracensis C.), Armagnac (Armaniacensis C.), Pardiac (Pardiacensis C.), Aure (Adura), Bigorre; the viscounts of Béarn, Bezaume, Castillon, Fronsac (Fronciacus), Gabardan, Labourd (Lapurtensis C.), Lomagne (Lomania), Marenne (Morianum), Marsan (Mons Martiani), Orthes, Palestre, Soule, Tartas (Tartassensis C.) and Tursan (Tursani). Among those of the count of *Toulouse*, the counts of Carcassonne and Razes, and of Fenouillèdes (Fenioletensis C.), the seignor of Foix, and the viscounts of Albi and Lautrec. Among those of the marquis of *Gothia* count of Rouergue, the counts of Mauguio, Agde, Beziers, Minerve, Narbonne and Nîmes. Among those of the duke of *Normandy*, the counts of Eu, Talou (Telau), Evreux, Mortain, Mortagne, and the seignor of Bellême (Belismensis S.).

The count of *Blois* held three large groups of territory which by intermarriages had become united to his family. They were the counties of *Chartres*, *Châteaudun*, *Blois*, *Tours*, *Troyes*, and a portion of the county of *Beauvais*, the other belonging to the bishop.

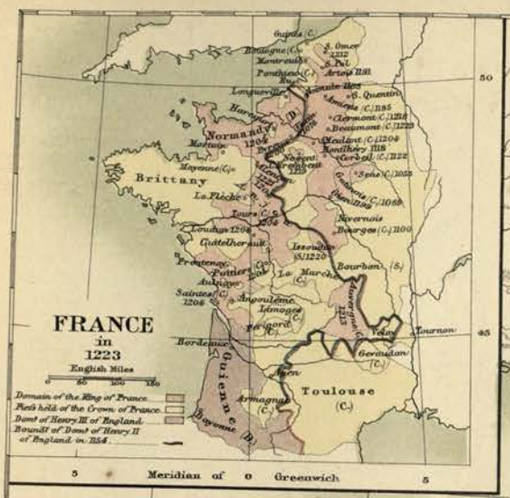
Amongst the ecclesiastical lordships were the counties of *Tournai*, *Beauvais*, *Noyon*, *Laon*, *Rheims*, *Châlons*, and *Langres*, which belonged to the bishops or archbishops of the towns named.

To the east of France were the *duchy of Lotharingia* and, the *kingdom of Burgundy or Arles*. *Lotharingia* was from 1043 onwards divided into an upper and a lower duchy. In it the archbishops of Cologne, Treves (Trier), and the bishops of Cambrai (Cameracus), Utrecht, Liège (Leodiensis Ep.) Metz (Mettis), Verdun, and Toul were the greatest vassals, as in the kingdom of *Burgundy* (Arles), where the archbishops of Vienne and Tarentaise, and the bishops of Geneva, Grenoble, Lausanne, Sion, and Viviers, were great temporal as well as spiritual lords. In the latter the greatest secular vassal was the count of Provence. The count of Burgundy ruled over what afterwards became known as the free county of Burgundy. The other immediate vassals of the kingdom of Arles were the counts of Lyonnais, Forez, Belley (who held Bugey and Savoy as well), Maurienne, Montbéliard, and Châlon, and the seignors of Baugé and Thoire.

During the period covered by the map the house of Capet, starting as direct lords of only a small district round Paris and Orleans, became immediate lords of at least one-third of their feudal dominions. The following table shows the dates of the different acquisitions by the crown:—

	DATE.
County of Melun	1016
County of Sens[1]	1055
Gatinais	1069
Corbie	1074
Vexin	1076
County of Bourges	1100
La Ferté-Aleps, Châteaufort and Le Puiset under Louis VI	(1108–1137)
Montlhéry	1118
Corbeil	(*circa*) 1122
Amiens, Montdidier, Roye, Choisy, Thourotte	1185
Artois	1191
(S. Omer, Aire, the county of Guines, Ardres, Lillers, Richebourg, restored to Baldwin VII of Flanders 1200.)	
Seignory of Gien	1199
Evreux (and part of the Evrêcin)	1200
The domain of the duchy of Normandy.	
The domain of the county of Anjou: Poitou, Saintonge, the county of Meulant	1204
Aire and St. Omer	1212
Auvergne	1213
County of Clermont	1218
Nogent l'Erembert	1219
Seignory of Issoudun	1220
County of Alençon	1221
County of Beaumont-sur-Oise	1223

[1] A part only, see Pfister, 122; Quantin, Cartul. Gén. de l'Yonne, ii. Introd. lxxi.



FRANCE
LOTHARINGIA & BURGUNDY
in the
11TH & 12TH CENTURIES

English Miles
20 10 0 20 40 60 80 100

Explanation.
Royal Domain, circa 1032
Fiefs of the House of Blois
Other fiefs held of the Crown of France
Ecclesiastical Fiefs
Fiefs holding directly from the King of France or the Emperor
Mediate Fiefs
Fiefs not mediate but attached to another fief
BURGONENSIS C.
Petragoricus C.
Picavensis C.
C. Comitatus (County)
D. Ducatus (Duchy)
S. Senioratus (Seigniory)
V. Vicecomitatus (Viscounty)

Long. West 2 of Greenw. 0 Long. East 2 of Greenw. 4 6

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Outside the growth of the royal domain the great event of the period is the growth and dissolution of the power of the Norman dukes, who came to the throne of England in the person of WILLIAM I in 1066. *Brittany* became vassal to the duchy of Normandy by the reign of William I, perhaps earlier. William added *Domfront* to his domain in 1049, and *Maine* in 1063. This last was, however, conquered from his son by the count of Anjou. But HENRY II, as son of Geoffrey of Anjou and Matilda of Normandy and England, united the rival houses, and still further increased his dominions by marrying Eleanor, the heiress of *Aquitaine* and *Gascony*, which had been united under one family since 1052. Henry lost the overlordship of *Auvergne* and *Velay* in his last years. JOHN lost *Normandy*, *Anjou*, *Poitou*, *Brittany*, *Touraine*, *Saintonge*, and the *Limousin*, leaving only Gascony and the Channel Islands in the hands of the King of England.

The borders of the kingdom of France as apart from the royal domain advanced during the period by the acquisition of the overlordship of the county of *Forez* at the beginning of the reign of LOUIS VII, and of the seignory of *Tournon* on the right bank of the Rhône in 1188.

For further details reference may be made to Longnon, 'Atlas Historique de la France,' Planches XI and XII; Pfister, 'Études sur le règne de Robert le Pieux,' especially chaps. ii. and iii., pp. 115–140; A. Luchaire, 'Manuel des Institutions Françaises sous les Capetiens directs,' pp. 237–245; and 'Histoire des institutions monarchiques de la France sous les premiers Capetiens (987–1180), especially Tome ii, pp. 195–291.

WALTER E. RHODES.

LIV

NORTHERN FRANCE IN 1066

LIV

NORTHERN FRANCE IN 1066

THE choice of so early a date as 1066 for a map designed to illustrate, in greater detail than the more general plates allow, the political geography of the north of France during the time of its close connexion with England, may be justified on the following grounds. The state of things in the twelfth century is already represented in the small map of HENRY II's French dominions given in Plate LIII; and it seemed very desirable, in an historical atlas intended for English students, to supply the means of estimating at a glance the balance of political forces on the other side of the Channel on the eve of the Norman Conquest. No existing atlas does this: M. Longnon's nearest map pictures the state of things upwards of thirty years before, and in the interval many changes had taken place; Spruner has nothing but a plate covering three centuries of French historical geography. But even from a purely French point of view the date is not ill chosen. The main interest in this respect during the eleventh and twelfth centuries, apart from the growth of the royal domain, centres in the rivalry of the three great feudal houses of *Normandy*, *Anjou*, and *Blois*. In 1066 they had not yet been reduced to two, but their respective limits had on the whole been fixed. The Norman dukes had extended their bounds to the widest extent they were destined to reach before the amalgamation of the Norman and Angevin families; and if Anjou had temporarily lost *Maine*, it had at last completely ousted the counts of Blois from *Touraine*, and its possessions on the lower Loire were now, so to speak, within a ring fence.

In accordance with the general plan of the atlas, the names are given in their Latin forms: the map will thus serve as a companion to the contemporary chronicles. As their spelling of place-names is far from consistent, it has been thought well for the sake of uniformity to adopt, wherever possible, the forms used by Orderic Vitalis in his 'Historia Ecclesiastica.' The 'Dictionnaire géographique' supplied by his editor, Le Prevost, will be found useful in identifying the modern names of the places.

The map of France in 1032, in M. Longnon's invaluable atlas, has been generally followed in fixing the boundaries of the fiefs; but the difference of date, scale, and plan involved a very considerable amount of independent labour. The principal changes that had occurred between the two dates will be found noted in the following summary of the main points elucidated by this map.

I. **Growth of the Royal Domain.** Here the only acquisition of any importance was that of the county of *Sens*, which escheated to the crown in 1055 on the death of Count Renaud II without issue[1]. Its possession at once directed the efforts of the crown to secure the county of *Château Landon* (Castellum Nantonis), or the *Gâtinais*, which separated it from the main body of the domain. Within three years of the date of our map these efforts proved successful, Fulk Rechin, count of Anjou, ceding the district to King PHILIP I in 1069.

II. **Relations of Anjou to Normandy and to Blois.** The relative position and strength of the three great feudatories of north-western France is indicated by the use of distinct colours for fiefs held by them and their kinsmen, or by their vassals. It will at once be seen that Anjou lay between two fires; she was frequently at strife both with Normandy on the north and Blois on the east, and with varying fortune. With the former the counts of Anjou disputed predominance in *Maine* and *Brittany*, with the latter possession of *Touraine*. In the conflict with Normandy they had by 1066 been for the present completely worsted. The energy and skill of Duke WILLIAM had carried all before it. He secured in 1060 the homage of Herbert Bacco, one of the claimants to the county of Maine, and three years later conquered it at the sword's point. In his hands the old claim of the Norman dukes to suzerainty over the counts of Brittany (or of Rennes) had for the first time become a reality, and Brittany sent more men to the conquest of England than any other district outside Normandy.

But before coming into collision with Normandy the Angevin counts had successfully consolidated their dominion on the lower Loire at the expense of the counts of Blois. In 1032 Fulk Nerra's conquests in Touraine still left a large island block from Chinon to Château-Renault, and including Tours itself, in the hands of Count Odo. But his successor, Geoffrey Martel, completed the acquisition of Touraine by his victory (1044) over Theobald of Blois at Montlouis (Mons Ludovici). He and his immediate successors did homage for the county (but not for the city) to the counts of Blois. The county of *Vendôme*, held by younger members of the Angevin house from the beginning of the century, had been annexed

[1] According to Pfister, 'Études sur le règne de Robert le Pieux,' p. 122, only a part of the county came to the crown.

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to Anjou by Geoffrey Martel about 1031, but in 1050 he restored it to his nephew, Fulk 'l'Oison,' who was in possession in 1066.

The loss of *Maine* and *Saintonge*, which followed the death in 1060 of the childless Geoffrey Martel, was by no means compensated for by the small isolated county of the Gâtinais, the paternal heritage of his nephew and successor. Fulk Rechin, as we have seen, almost immediately alienated it to the crown. Theobald of Blois consoled himself for the loss of Touraine by turning his nephew out of the county of *Troyes* in 1047, and reuniting the eastern and western possessions of his house. The former, which included the whole of the *Beauvaisis* except the small district appropriated to the bishop, had been augmented between 1032 and 1066 by the acquisition of superiority over the county of *Joigny*, a fief cut off at an earlier date from the county of Sens.

III. **Normandy.** The map shows how successful William the Bastard had been in extending the power of his duchy before he took in hand the conquest of England. He was Count of Maine and effective suzerain of Brittany on the one side, and Ponthieu on the other; Count Guy of Ponthieu, taken prisoner by the duke at Mortemer (*Mortuum Mare*) in 1054, had obtained his release two years later by doing homage to his conqueror. William thus controlled more than a third of northern France, and nearly the whole southern coast of the Channel.

The three important counties held of the duchy by younger members of the ducal house, *Eu* (Aucus), *Evreux* (Ebroica) and *Mortain* (Moritolium or Moritonium), are marked on the map by dotted black lines. The counties of *Talou* and the *Hiémois* now formed part of the ducal domain. We must also mention the border county of *Mortagne* (Moritonia), to which were annexed lands holding of the Count of Blois and the seignior of the Thimerais. Another and more irregular frontier fief was the seigniory of *Bellême*, whose lordship of Domfront had originally formed part of Maine; the lords of Bellême still held the seigniory of the Saonois (Sagona) in Maine, but Domfront, as well as their lordships of Alençon and Bellême, was now within the duchy.

An attempt has been made to distinguish, by underlining in red, the places which gave names or titles to Anglo-Norman families. In some cases (e.g. Magnavilla) the recurrence of similar names renders the ascription uncertain, but in general the conclusions of Le Prevost in his notes to Orderic have been adopted. The following is a list of identifications:—

Abrincae	D'Abrincis.	Laceium	Lacy.
Albamarla	Albemarle (Aumale).	Magnavilla ...	Mandeville.
		Molbraium	Mowbray.
Albinneium ...	Albini.	Mons Fortis ...	Montfort.
Amfredivilla ...	Umphreville.	Mons Gomerici ...	Montgomery.
Aquila	Aquila (L'Aigle).	Mortuum Mare ...	Mortimer.
Bailolum	Baliol.	Moun	Mohun.
Bellus Campus ...	Beauchamp.	Nonantum	Nonant.
Bellus Mons ...	Beaumont.	Novavilla	Neville.
Bohonum	Bohun.	Novus Mercatus	Neufmarché.
Bolobeccus ...	Bolbec.	Oillei	D'Oily.
Braiosa	Braose.	Perceium	Percy.
Brix	Bruce.	Pomereium ...	Pomeroy.
Cormeliae	Cormeliae.	Radverii	Redvers.
Cortenaia	Courtenay.	Raumara	Roumare.
Creciacus	Cressy.	Saia	Say.
Curceium	Courcy.	St. Galericus ...	St. Valery.
Dunstanvilla ...	Dunstanville.	Stotevilla	Stuteville.
Ebroica	Devereux.	Toeneium	Toesny.
Ferrariae	Ferrers.	Traceium	Tracy.
Furnivilla	Furnival.	Valones	Valognes.
Gornacum	Gournay(Gurney).	Ver	Vere.
Grentemaisnilum	Grantmaisnil.	Vetus Pons ...	Vipont.
Harulfi cortis ...	Harcourt.	Warrenna	Warrenne.

IV. As the chroniclers constantly use the names of the old 'pagi,' as well as those of the newer feudal divisions, a small sketch-map has been added, showing the approximate extent of these prae-feudal divisions for Normandy and the adjacent districts.

A few names of abbeys founded after 1066 have been inserted; they are distinguished by difference of type.

JAMES TAIT.

LV

FRANCE IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

LV

FRANCE IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY

THE accompanying plate is intended to represent France after the Treaty of Paris, 1259, and the supplementary Treaty of Amiens, 1279. It is based on M. Longnon's map of France in 1259, but the attempt to illustrate the full working out of the treaty of 1259, which did not take place till twenty years later, has necessitated some considerable changes. It is hoped, however, that this extension of plan will make the map the more useful for the study of the foreign policy of EDWARD I, showing as it does the state of things in France in the early years of his reign.

The Treaty of Paris only ceded to HENRY III what the King of France possessed in the dioceses of *Limoges*, *Cahors*, and *Périgueux*, in fiefs and domains, with reservation of the fiefs of Alfonse, Count of Poitiers, brother to LOUIS IX, and others which could not be alienated without the consent of the vassals holding them. In addition, however, it stipulated that, if Alfonse of Poitiers died without issue, *Southern Saintonge* and *Agenais* should go to the English king, and also *Southern Quercy* if found to have been part of the dowry of Jeanne, sister of RICHARD I, who had married RAYMOND VI of Toulouse. Alfonse died in 1270, but it was not until 1279 that a treaty at Amiens confirmed the cession of the first two, and the assignment of revenues in Quercy to the value of 758*l.* did not take place until 1287. By the same treaty Edward was confirmed in the possession of the county of *Ponthieu*, which had devolved to him in right of his wife, on the death of Joanna of Castile, her mother.

The Royal Domain from 1223 to 1279.—The increase of the royal domain in this period was somewhat checked by the frequent creation out of it of apanages for younger members of the royal house. The county of *Perche* fell to the crown in 1226, but was given in 1269 by LOUIS IX to his son Pierre, along with the county of *Alençon*. LOUIS VIII also acquired the châtellenies of *S. Riquier* and *Doullens*. In 1229 the viscounties of *Nîmes*, *Beziers*, and *Carcassonne* were ceded to the crown as the final result of the Albigensian crusade. *Domfront* became royal domain at the death of the king's uncle, Philip Hurepel, in 1234, and the county of *Mâcon* was acquired by the crown in 1239. In 1271 the death, without issue, of Alfonse of Poitiers, who had inherited the county of *Toulouse* from his father-in-law, RAYMOND VII, in 1249, added that fief to the royal domain.

Immediate Fiefs of the Crown.—The conquest of the English possessions and the acquisition of the county of *Toulouse* largely increased the number of vassals holding directly from the crown.

From 1204 the King of France was immediate lord of the counts of Brittany, Eu, Aumale, Longueville, Mortain, Perche, Vendôme, la Marche, Angoulême, Périgord, the viscounts of Beaumont, Thouars, Châtellerault, Aulnay, Limoges, Turenne, and Ventadour, and the seignors of Mayenne, Laval, Craon, Amboise, Mauléon, Parthenay, Talmont, and Lusignan.

By the conquest of *Auvergne*, the count and dauphin of Auvergne, the bishop of Clermont, the viscounts of Thiers and Carlat, and the seignor of Livradois, became immediate vassals.

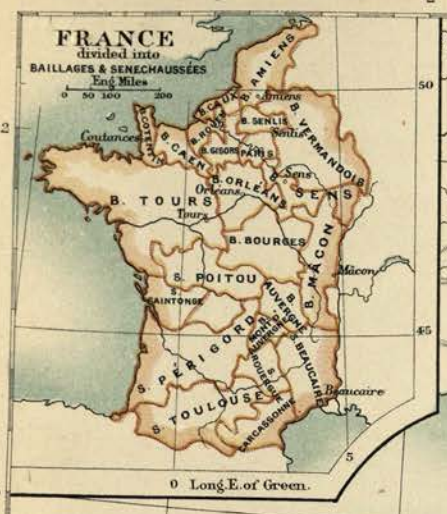
By the treaty with the count of *Toulouse* in 1229 was likewise acquired the immediate lordship of the seignories of Castres and Albi; the viscounty of Lautrec, the counties of Lodève, Mauguio (Melgueil), and Agde, the viscounty of Narbonne, and the seignory of Mirepoix.

In 1234 the immediate overlordship of Blois, Chartres, Sancerre, and Châteaudun was purchased by Thibaut le Chansonnier, count of Champagne.

In 1271 the counts of Comminges, Rodez, and Valentinois, and the viscounts of Villemur and Gimoes, became tenants-in-chief on the death of Alfonse of Poitiers, as his county of Toulouse passed to the crown.

The Apanages.—It is in the thirteenth century that the system of apanages, which did so much to influence the course of French history, first appears. The large territories which were added to the royal domain by the conquests of PHILIP AUGUSTUS and LOUIS IX were perhaps too extensive for the existing royal officers to look after, and there was also the necessity of providing for the younger members of the royal family.

At the beginning of his reign LOUIS VIII handed over the county of *Clermont-en-Beauvaisis* to his brother Philip Hurepel, count of Boulogne, Dammartin, and Mortain, in right of his wife, Ida of Boulogne, but received in exchange the Cotentin, which was attached to the county of Mortain. By his will made in 1225 he assigned *Artois* to his second son, Alfonse; *Anjou* and *Maine* to his third son, Robert; and to his fourth, Charles, the county of *Poitiers*, with



Explanation.

Royal Domain

Apanages of Princes of the Royal House

Fiefs of the King of England

Other Fiefs

Immediate Fiefs thus ... BOURBON

Mediate " " ... Vitré

B. Barony — D. Duchy

Bp. Bishopric — M. Marquisate

C. County — S. Seignory

V. Viscounty

FRANCE

in the

13TH CENTURY

after the

TREATIES OF PARIS 1259 & AMIENS 1279

English Miles

20 10 0 20 40 60 80 100

Long. West 2 of Greenw. — Long. East 2 of Greenw.

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Auvergne. Robert, however, in fact received *Artois* in 1237, Alfonse *Poitiers* and *Auvergne* in 1241, and Charles *Anjou* and *Maine* in 1246. But, as has been noted above, Alfonse died without issue in 1271, and his lands became royal domain again.

The establishment of the apanage of *Artois* took away from the crown the direct homage of the counts of Boulogne, Guines, and St. Pol. That of *Poitiers* took away, from 1241 to 1271, that of the counts of La Marche and Auvergne, the dauphin of Auvergne, the viscounts of Thouars, Châtellerault, Aulnay, Thiers, Carlat, and the seignors of Talmont, Mauléon, Parthenay, Lusignan, Combraille, and Livradois. The constitution of *Anjou*, as an apanage in 1246, took away from the crown the immediate suzerainty of the count of Vendôme, the viscount of Beaumont, and the seignors of Mayenne, Laval, and Craon.

The Fiefs of the English King.—The lands held directly of the French crown by EDWARD I, or owing allegiance to him, had been defined, though not very definitely, by the treaties of 1259 and 1279. They included the southern portion of Saintonge, the viscounties of Limoges, Ventadour, and Turenne, the county of Périgord, the Agenois, the viscounties of Marsan, Tursan, Soule, and Béarn, and the seignory of Albret. But the dispute about the town of Limoges shows how vague and contested these rights were, especially in the districts adjoining the territories of the King of France[1]. Edward's succession to the county of Ponthieu has already been mentioned. It is noteworthy that Edward's brother Edmund was from January, 1276, to May, 1284, in right of his wife, Blanche of Artois, widow of Henry, count of *Champagne*, tenant of that great fief, and until the outbreak of the war in 1294 continued to hold the five châtellenies which formed her dower.

[1] See Langlois, 'Philippe le Hardi,' p. 74 sqq.

Administrative Divisions.—The inset map shows the main administrative divisions of France in 1305 so far as they have yet been determined. The baillis, or seneschals, as they were called in the south, seem to have been originally financial officers of the crown, who gradually extended their powers to all branches of administrative work, and from being emissaries of the crown with a roving commission became its fixed local representatives, with a defined portion of territory to look after, which took from them the title of *baillage* or *sénéchaussée*. M. Longnon's map, on which the present one is based, is of an extremely tentative character, being constructed on the basis of a comparison of the financial documents used by Boutaric, in his table of the administrative divisions of France under Philip the Fair, and a table of M. Henri Hervieu, based on documents in the Trésor des Chartes, of the ecclesiastics, lords, and towns of the kingdom who sent deputies to the estates-general in the first half of the fourteenth century. There are numerous documents of importance which have not been taken into account in the compilation of either of these lists. The main divisions were subdivided into *prévôtés*, which were too numerous to allow of the indication even of their capitals on so small a scale.

W. E. RHODES.

LVI

FRANCE DURING THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

LVI

FRANCE DURING THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

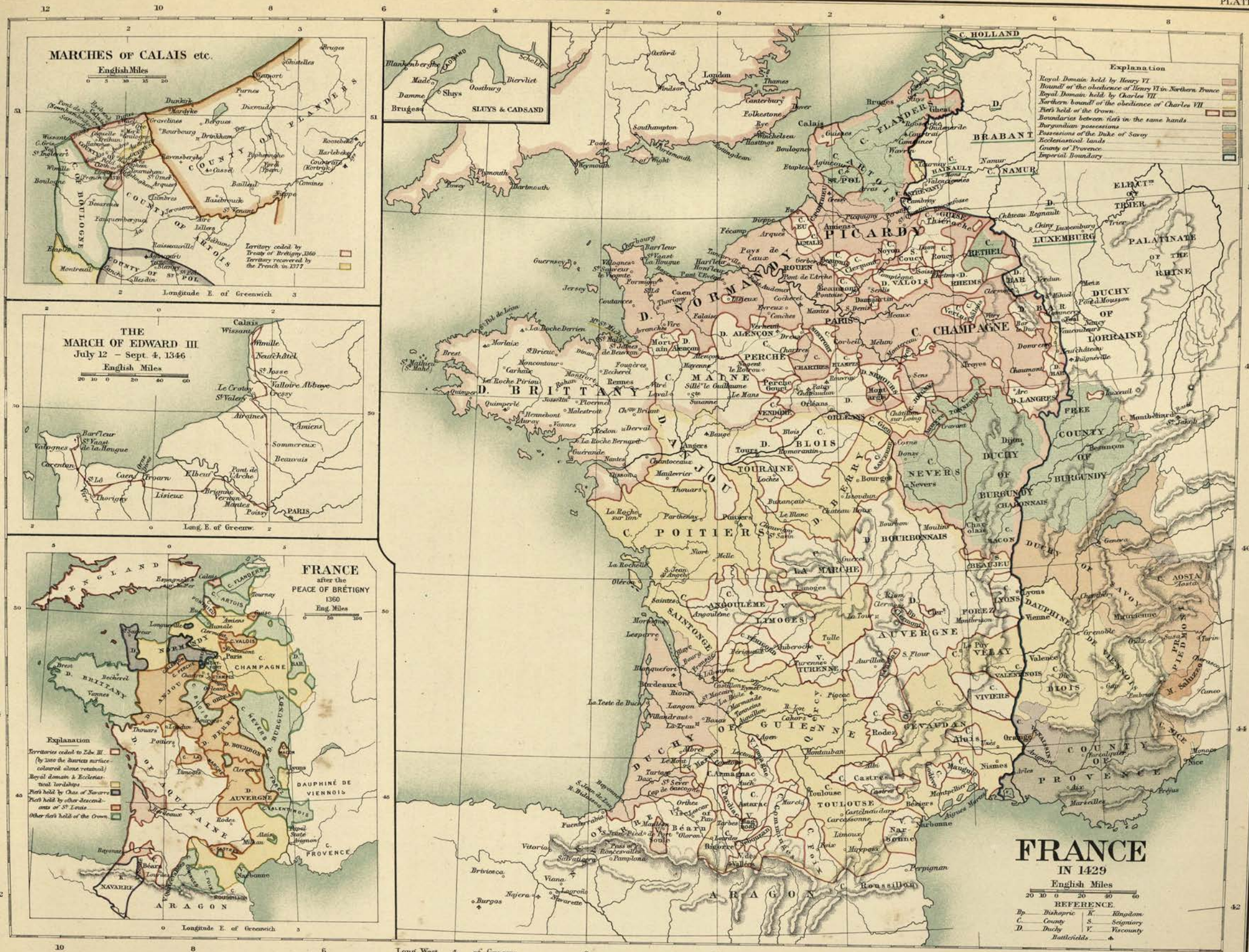
THE small map of France after the Peace of Brétigny (April 8, 1360) shows the high-water mark of EDWARD III's French successes. Beyond the Loire the treaty ceded to him in full sovereignty the districts of *Poitou*, *Aunis*, *Saintonge*, *Limousin*, *Agenais*, *Quercy*, *Rouergue*, and *Bigorre* (but not *Comminges* or the *Basse Marche*), and these, with the possessions which the English king kept in *Guienne* after the war of 1325, formed the duchy of Aquitaine governed by the Black Prince. In the north the county of *Ponthieu*, *Montreuil-sur-Mer*, and *Calais*, with the county of *Guisnes*, were also cut off from France in favour of the English king. The miserable remnant of this vast cession—one-fourth of the whole kingdom—which remained in English hands twenty years later is marked for purposes of comparison. Fuller details will be found in the explanatory text (p. 256) accompanying M. Longnon's 'Atlas Historique de la France,' to which we are indebted for this map. M. Longnon also exhibits the distribution of the narrowed kingdom of 1360 between royal domain, appanages, and other fiefs, but this will be best dealt with in the explanation of the larger map.

The larger map, which is a reduction, with some modifications, of that by M. Longnon appended to the second volume of M. du Fresne de Beaucourt's 'Histoire de Charles VII,' brings out:—

I. **The greatest extent of the English dominion in France** in the second half of the Hundred Years' War. The moment chosen is the arrival of JOAN OF ARC before Orleans on April 29, 1429. The arms and diplomacy of HENRY V and John duke of Bedford had then brought nearly the whole of France north of the Loire into the English obedience. Beyond that river CHARLES VII, the 'King of Bourges,' held only Orleans with portions of the duchies of Anjou and Touraine and the county of Blois on one side of it, and the county of Gien and an adjacent piece of royal domain on the other, the isolated posts of Châteaudun and Mont St. Michel, and two strips of royal domain on the eastern frontier, Tournay and Vaucouleurs. The last-named contained Domrémy, the birthplace of the Maid of Orleans, the saviour of France. The English frontier crossed the Loire at two points, in Southern Brittany and opposite Orleans, where it included the left bank from Beaugency nearly up to Gien. The recognition of HENRY VI as king of France by the dukes of Brittany and Burgundy is indicated in the map by the pink outline surrounding their territories. In the south the English possessions in Guienne, reduced to such narrow dimensions in 1380, had regained—not indeed the limits of 1279, much less those of 1360, but something like the area held in 1328. Aunis and Saintonge, it is true, remained French, but the English dominion extended further up the valleys of the Garonne and Adour.

The rapid retreat of the English frontier north of the Loire, especially in Champagne, before the capture of Joan of Arc on May 24, 1430, could not be indicated without confusing our map, but may be seen on that of M. Longnon. For a full discussion of the whole matter see his article on 'Les limites de la France et l'étendue de la domination Anglaise à l'époque de la mission de Jeanne d'Arc' in the 'Revue des Questions Historiques,' xviii (1875), 445 sqq. Sir James Ramsay, 'Lancaster and York,' i. 196, gives a rough map of the territory in Aquitaine which the French government offered to cede as the price of peace in July, 1415.

II. **The growth of the bounds of France** on her eastern frontier from 1279 at the expense of the Empire. On the north-east Tournay (1320) and some smaller fragments had been absorbed. Further south the annexation of the imperial fiefs of the counts of Champagne by PHILIP IV, and the partial homage of the Duke of Bar in 1301, made the upper course of the Meuse as far as Château Regnault almost everywhere the actual eastern frontier of France. But the Clermontois, an imperial fief of the Duke of Bar, still ran like a wedge across it, and some districts on the right bank owed allegiance to France. The claims advanced by the French kings to Toul and other cities in Lorraine, and the popular rumour that ALBERT I had granted them the Rhine as their frontier, are discussed in M. Longnon's article already cited (as well as in the text to his Atlas), and in M. Leroux's 'Recherches critiques sur les relations politiques de la France avec l'Allemagne, 1292–1461' (Paris, 1882–92). The abbey of Luxeuil became a French *enclave* in the county of Burgundy in 1285. The recognition of French suzerainty by the bishop of Viviers (1305), the archbishop of Lyons (1307), and the count of Valence and Die, made the right bank of the Rhone from Lyons to the sea entirely French, while the bulk of Valence and Die extended beyond it. The cession of the county or dauphiny of Vienne by its last native dauphin to CHARLES, eldest son of JOHN I, in 1349, completed the acquisition of the central portion of the old kingdom of Burgundy. Down to 1461 the annexation of the dauphiny was disguised by treating it as an appanage of the heir presumptive. But it became virtually royal



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domain and is so marked in the map of 1429, though not in that of 1360. The only change on the southern frontier is the successful assertion by Béarn of its independence of the dukes of Aquitaine in 1324.

III. **The growth of the royal domain.** Between 1279 and 1429 most of the remaining great fiefs had at one time or another come into the hands of the crown. But the kings, especially the early Valois, granted out again much of these gains with portions of the older domain as appanages to their sons which did not always revert to the crown. The small map of France after the Treaty of Brétigny shows the shrinkage of the royal domain due to this cause, as well as the cession of Aquitaine to EDWARD III. By 1429, however, much of this shrinkage had been repaired, though the domain was now divided between two rival sovereigns. Among the constituents of the domain which had not formed part of it in 1279, the most important were the county of Champagne, united to the crown in 1285 by PHILIP IV, who had married its heiress, the county of Chartres (1286 and 1346), the county of Saintonge, the dauphiny of Vienne (1349), and the counties of Valence and Die (1423). To these must be added English Guienne, which of course ranks as domain from the assumption of the royal title by its dukes except during the short period after 1360, when it was separated from France altogether (as shown in the larger inset map). The following table gives the dates of the effective absorption of the chief remaining fiefs :—

FIEFS.	DATE.	FIEFS.	DATE.
Comminges	1453	Alençon, Perche	1525
Burgundy	1477	Bourbon, La Marche	1527
Anjou	1480	Forez	1531
Maine	1481	Armagnac, Foix, Limoges, Périgord, Vendôme	1589
Brittany	1491	Bigorre, Béarn	1607
Blois, Orleans	1498	Auvergne (county)	1643
Narbonne	1507	Turenne	1738
Angoulême	1515		

IV. **The growth of the Burgundian power.** The French fiefs of the duke of Burgundy (Burgundy, Auxerre, Flanders (1384)) and his kinsmen (Nevers, Tonnerre, Rethel, and St. Pol) have by exception been coloured green in order to give a clearer impression of the power of this house.

The small map of *Calais* and its march is based upon a comparison of Spruner's map with the one drawn under Henry VIII, reproduced with the Chronicle of Calais (Camden Society) and other more scattered indications. That of *Sluys* is adopted from Kervyn de Lettenhove's reconstruction of the estuary of the Scheld published in his edition of Froissart.

JAMES TAIT.

LVII

GALLIA SACRA

LVII

GALLIA SACRA

I. The Provinces.

MEROVINGIAN GAUL was divided into twelve ecclesiastical provinces corresponding in the main to the early Roman political provinces. They were *Treves* (Trevirensis), *Rheims* (Remensis), *Rouen* (Rotomagensis), *Tours* (Turonensis), *Sens* (Senonensis), *Lyons* (Lugdunensis), *Bourges* (Bituricensis), *Bordeaux* (Burdigalensis), *Auch* (Auxitana), *Narbonne* (Narbonensis), *Arles* (Arelatensis), and *Vienne* (Viennensis). The revival of the archbishoprics of *Mainz* in 748 and *Cologne* before 811 took away a considerable portion of the province of Treves; that of *Besançon* and *Tarentaise* before 811 part of Lyons; and that of *Aix* between 811 and 818 and *Embrun* before 811 a considerable portion of Arles.

From 848 to 1196 Brittany formed *de facto* (though never recognized by the Pope) a separate province under the primacy of the Bishop, or, as he styled himself, the Archbishop, of *Dol*. The new provinces of *Besançon, Tarentaise, Embrun,* and *Aix* answered to the Roman provinces of which their archiepiscopal city had been the capital, except that Besançon lost the territory of Windisch, which became part of Mainz, and Tarentaise gained the diocese of Aosta, which from the end of the sixth to the beginning of the eighth century had been part of the province of Vienne. The province of *Narbonne* lost the bishoprics of Ausona, Barcelona, Girona, Roda, and Urgel by a bull of Urban II in 1091, which assigned these to the new archbishopric of Tarragona. In 1317 JOHN XXII cut off the province of *Toulouse* from that of Narbonne, and in 1559 the archbishopric of *Cambrai* was cut off from that of Rheims.

In 1622 the archbishopric of *Paris* was in like manner created at the expense of that of Sens, and in 1676 that of *Albi* out of the province of Bourges.

II. The Bishoprics.

The bishopric of *Arras* was revived in 1093 and that of *Tournay* in 1146. The bishopric of *Pamiers* was created by Boniface VIII in 1295. In 1317 were created the new bishoprics of *Vabres, Castres, Mirepoix, S. Papoul, Rieux, Lavaur, Montauban, Tulle, Lombes, Luçon, Maillezais, S. Flour,* and *S. Pons*, and in 1318 *Alet*. The bishopric of *Bourg-en-Bresse* was created in 1515, but only lasted till 1544[1]. In 1777 *Nancy* became the seat of a bishopric, while that of *Elna* was transferred to Perpignan. New bishoprics were created at *Blois* (1697), *S. Claude* (1742), *S. Die* (1777), *Moulins* (1790), *Versailles* (1802), *Annecy* (1822), *Laval* (1855).

[1] The sees established in the Spanish Netherlands in and after 1559 are marked in Plate LII.

The following list gives the Bishoprics of Gaul and the neighbouring lands, with their Latin names and the dates of their foundation, or of the earliest precise date at which there is known to have been a bishop there:—

Agde[1]	*Agathe*	405.
Agen	*Aginnum*	303.
Aire	*Adura*	506.
Aix-en-Provence	*Aquae Sextiae*	*c.* 409.
Aix-la-Chapelle	*Aquisgranum*	1802–1821.
Ajaccio[2]	*Adjacium*	313.
Alais	*Arisitum, Alistum, Alestum, Alectum*	540–*c.* 700, 1694–1807.
Albi	*Albia*	*c.* 406.
Alet	*Alecta*	1318.
Amiens	*Ambianum*	*c.* 300.
Angers	*Andegavum*	372.
Angoulême	*Engolismum*	406.
Annecy	*Anesiacum*	1822.
Antwerp	*Antverpia*	1559.
Aosta	*Augusta praetoria*	388.
Apte	*Apta*	408.
Arles	*Arelas, Arelatum*	*c.* 67.
Arras	*Atrebatum*	500–540, 1093.
Auch	*Augusta Ausciorum*[1]	*c.* 321.
Autun	*Augustodunum*	*c.* 270.
Auxerre	*Autissiodorum*	258.
Avignon	*Avenio*	*c.* 353.
Avranches	*Abrincae*	511.
Basel	*Basilea, Augusta Rauracorum*	344.
Bayeux	*Bajocae, Bagacum, Bagia*	*c.* 390.
Bayonne	*Bagona, Lapurdum*	980.
Bazas	*Vasates*	437.
Beauvais	*Bellovacum*	*c.* 250.
Belley	*Bellicium*	412.
Besançon	*Vesontio*	*c.* 180.
Béziers	*Biterrae*	*c.* 250.
Bordeaux	*Burdigala*	314.
Boulogne et Thérouanne	*Taruana*	531.
Bourg-en-Bresse	——	1515–1544.
Bourges	*Bituricum, Biturigae*	*c.* 280.
Cahors	*Divona Cadurcorum*	*c.* 280.
Cambrai	*Cameracum*	580[3].
Carcassonne	*Carcasso*	589.
Carpentras	*Carpentoracte, Carpentrassum*	*c.* 483.
Cavaillon	*Cabellio*	389.
Châlon-sur-Saône	*Cabillonum, Cabillodunum*	346.
Châlons-sur-Marne	*Catalaunum*	*c.* 290.
Chambéry	*Camberium*	1775.
Chantoceaux	*Castrum Sellense*	*c.* 560–*c.* 564.
Chartres	*Carnutum*	*c.* 390.
Châteaudun	*Dunum*	567–575[4].
Clermont-Ferrand	*Augusta Nemetum, Arverni* (*Clarus Mons*)	*c.* 312.
Cologne, Koeln	*Colonia*	313.
Comminges	*Convenae, Lugdunum Convenarum*	506.
Condom	*Condomium Vasconum*	1317.

[1] At first Eause.
[2] In the modern province of Aix-en-Provence.
[3] The see was previously at Arras.
[4] See Longnon, *Géographie de la Gaule au Vme Siècle*, pp. 326–328.

FRANCE

WITH PORTIONS OF BURGUNDY

AND THE EMPIRE

showing the

ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS

in the Middle Ages

English Miles

20 10 0 20 40 60 80 100

Explanation

Seats of Archbishoprics — Seats of Bishoprics

Former — Former

Later — Later

Monasteries

Long. West 2 of Greenw. — Long. East 2 of Greenw.

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Constance	*Constantia*	517.
Couserans, Conserans	*Civitas Conseranorum, Fanum S. Licerii.*	451.
Coutances	*Constantia, Cosedia Brioveris*	*c.* 429.
Dax, or D'Acqs	*Aquae Augustae, Civitas Aquarum Tarbellicarum, Tarbella, Vibio*	506.
Die	*Dia*	*c.* 325.
Digne	*Dinia*	*c.* 364.
Dijon	*Divio*	1731.
Dol	*Dola*	557.
Elne	*Elna*	571–1602.
Embrun	*Embrodunum, Ebrodunum, Caturigum*	374.
Evreux	*Civitas Ebroicorum*	*c.* 412.
Fréjus	*Forum Julii*	374.
Gap	*Vapincum*	*c.* 430.
Geneva	*Geneva, Gebenna*	381.
Glandève	*Glandava*	451.
Grasse	*Grassa*	1244[1].
Grenoble	*Gratianopolis*	381.
Langres	*Lingonae, Andromadunum Lingonum*	*c.* 220.
Laon	*Lugdunum Clavatum, Laudunum*	499.
Lausanne et Avenche	——	*c.* 573.
Laval	*Vallis Guidonis*	1855.
Lavaur	*Varum, Vaurum*	1317.
Lectour	*Lactora, Lectorium, Lactoracum*	506.
Le Mans	*Cenomannum*	451.
Lescar	*Lascurra, Beneharnum*	506.
Liège	*Leodium*	313?–558, then Maestricht.
Limoges	*Lemovicum*	506.
Lisieux	*Lexovium*	538.
Lodève	*Leutevium, Loteva*	506.
Lombès	*Lombarium*	1317.
Luçon	*Luxonium, Lucionum*	1317.
Lyon	*Lugdunum*	*c.* 150.
Mâcon	*Matisco*	536.
Maestricht	*Trajectum*	558.
Maguelonne	*Magalona*	585–737.
Marseilles	*Massilia*	314.
Meaux	*Meldae*	549.
Mechlin (Malines)	*Mechlinia*	1559.
Mende	*Mimate, Mimatum*	314.
Mirepoix	*Mirapicum, Mirapincum*	1317.
——	*Momociacus* (in Alsace)	589.
Montpellier[2]	*Mons Pessulus, Mons Puellarum, Mons Pellium*	1527.
Moulins	*Molinum*	1790–1802, 1817.
Moutiers en Tarentaise	*Monasterium in Tarentasia*	*c.* 420.
Namur	*Namurcum*	1559.
Nancy et Toul	*Nanceium et Tullum*	1777[3].
Nantes	*Namnetes*	374.
Narbonne	*Narbo, Narbona*	359?
Nevers	*Nivernum, Noviodunum*	*c.* 505.
Nice	*Nicia*	381.
Nîmes	*Nemausus*	394.
Noyon	*Noviomagus*	511.
Oléron	*Elorona, Illurona, Ellerono*	506.
Orange	*Arausio*	*c.* 258.
Orléans	*Aurelianum, Aurelia Aureliae*	344.
Pamiers	*Appamiae, Pamiae*	1295.
Paris	*Parisii, Lutetia Parisiorum*	344.
Périgueux	*Petrocorium*	356.
Perpignan	*Perpinianum*	1602[4].
Poitiers	*Pictavium, Augustoritum Pictonum*	*c.* 350.
Le Puy	*Podium, Anicium*	451.
Quimper	*Coriosopitum Curiosolitarum*	*c.* 444.
Rennes	*Redones*	358.
Rheims	*Remi*	*c.* 290.
Rieux	*Rivi, Rivenae, Valla de Rivis*	1317.
Riez	*Regii, Regium; Colonia Rejorum*	433.
La Rochelle et Maillezais	*Malleaca et Rupella*	1317[5].
Rodez	*Ruthenae Sagodum, Segedunum Ruthenorum*	506.
Rouen	*Rotomagus*	*c.* 260.

[1] The see was previously at Antibes (*Antipolis*), 451–1244.
[2] See also Maguelonne and Villeneuve.
[3] The two sees were united in 1801.
[4] The see was previously at Elna, 571–1602.
[5] Maillezais, 1317–1648.

S. Brieuc	*S. Brioci*	*c.* 848.
S. Claude	——	1742.
S. Cyr	——	1686.
S. Dié	——	1777.
S. Flour	*Floropolis, Fanum S. Flori*	1318.
S. Jean de Maurienne	*Mauriana*	*c.* 577.
Saint-Malo (Aleth)	*Maclovium*	433 at Aleth, until 1163.
Saint-Omer	*Audomaropolis*	1563.
Saint-Papoul	*S. Papuli*	1317.
S. Paul Trois Châteaux	*Fanum S. Pauli Tricastinorum*	*c.* 265.
S. Pol de Léon	*S. Pauli Leonensis*	*c.* 529.
S. Pons de Thomières	*S. Pontii Thomeriarum*	1318.
Saintes, Xaintes	*Santones, Mediolanum Santonum*	*c.* 475.
Sarlat	*Sarlatum*	1318.
Séez	*Sagium, Sagorum Civitas, Urbs Seluniorum, Vaguntum Sessuorum*	511.
Sénez	*Sanitium, Sanecium*	451.
Senlis	*Silvanectum*	511.
Sens	*Senones*	344.
Sion, Sitten	*Sedunum seu Octodurum*	349.
Sisteron	*Sistero, Sistaricum, Segusterum, Sequestro*	451.
Soissons	*Suessiones, Augusta Suessionum*	*c.* 299.
Spires	*Spira*	344.
Strassburg	*Argentoratum, Stratoburgum*	344.
Tarbes	*Tarba, Tarba Bigerrionum, Castrum Bigorrae*	*c.* 394.
Toul[1]	*Tullum*	*c.* 338.
Toulon	*Tolonium, Telo Martius*	451.
Toulouse	*Tolosa*	*c.* 257–260.
Tournay	*Tornacum*	1146.
Tours	*Turones, Turonium*	*c.* 250.
Tréguier	*Trecorium*	849.
Trèves	*Augusta Trevirorum*	314.
Troyes	*Trecae*	344.
Tulle	*Tutela*	1317.
Uzès	*Ucetia*	419.
Vabres	*Castrum Vabrense, Vabrincum*	1317.
Vaison	*Vasio*	314.
Valence	*Valentia*	344.
Vannes	*Venetiae*	*c.* 461.
Vence	*Vintium, Vintia, Ventiae, Vinciensium urbs*	*c.* 374.
Verdun	*Virdunum, Veredunum*	346.
Versailles	——	1802.
Vienne	*Vienna*	*c.* 140–155.
Villeneuve-les-Maguelonne	*Substantio*	737–1527.
Viviers	*Vivarium*	411.
Worms	*Vangiones, Wormatia*	344.
Ypres	*Ypra*	1559.

III. List of some of the Monasteries inserted in the Map, arranged under their Latin names.

Accinctus	*Acey.*
Alba Curia	*Abecourt.*
Alciacum	*Auchi-les-Moines.*
Almaniscae	*Almanesches.*
Alpes	*Aulps.*
Alta Riva	*Hauterive.*
Altum Villare	*Hautviller.*
Altus Mons	*Aumont.*
Arcissae seu Arcisiae	*Arcisses.*
Ardena	*Ardenne.*
Artona	*Artos.*
Asneriae	*Aisnières-Bellay.*
Balerna	*Balerne.*
Balgenciacum	*Baugency.*
Bardum seu Berdona	*Berdoues.*
Bassus Fons	*Basse Fontaine.*
Battentum	*Battant.*
Beata Maria de Cagnota	*N. D. de la Cagnotte.*
B. Maria de Pamportis	*N. D. de Paimport.*
B. Maria de Pontilevio	*N. D. de Pontlevoy.*
B. Maria de Silva Mellonis	*Coetmalouen.*
B. Maria Landaevallensis	*Lanvaux.*
Beccum	*Le Bec.*
Bella Lagia	*Bellelay.*
Bella Stella	*Belle-Étoile.*
Bella Vallis	*Bellevaux.*
Bellosanna	*Bellosanne.*
Bellus Locus	*Beaulieu.*
Bernaicus	*Bernay.*
Bertolcurtis	*Bertancourt.*
Bethania	*Bithaine.*
Blanca landa	*Blanchelande.*
Blangiacum	*Blangy.*
Boheriae	*Bohéries.*
Bona Requies	*Bon Repos.*
Bona Vallis	*Bonneval.*
Bonus Radius	*Bouras.*
Britolium	*Breteuil.*
Brolium Benedicti	*Breuil Benoit.*
Bullencuria	*Boullencour.*
Bunzuum	*Bons.*
Burburgi	*Bourbourg.*
Buxeria	*La Boissière.*
Cala	*Chelles.*
Calercium	*Calers.*
Calma	*La Chaume.*
Campi Boni	*Chambons.*
Cantumerula	*Chantemerle.*
Capella	*La Chapelle.*

[1] See also Nancy.

Capella ad Plancas	*Chapelle aux Planches.*
Caroli Locus ...	*Charlieu.*
Carthusia Major ...	*La Grande Chartreuse.*
Carus Campus ...	*Cercamp.*
Caziacum	*Chesy.*
Cerasium... ...	*Cérisy.*
Chalocheium ...	*Chaloché.*
Claretum	*Les Clairets.*
Clari Marisci ...	*Clair Marests.*
Colombae	*Coulombs.*
Conchae	*Conches.*
Corbeia	*Corbie.*
Cordillio	*Cordillon.*
Cormaricus ...	*Cormery.*
Cormeliae... ...	*Cormeilles.*
Corneolus	*Corneux.*
Cornevilla... ...	*Corneville.*
Dei Locus... ...	*Dilo.*
Dervum	*Montier-en-Die.*
Eleemosyna seu Cistercium Minus	*L'Aumône* or *Le Petit Citeaux.*
Elnae	*Eaunes.*
Esseium	*Essay.*
Essomi	*Essommes.*
Exaquium... ...	*Lessay.*
Faverniacum ...	*Favernay.*
Ferrariae	*Ferrières.*
Fiscannum, Fecan	*Fécamp.*
Flaranum	*Flaran.*
Flinae	*Flines.*
Floriacus	*Fleury.*
Fontanae Albae ...	*Fontaine-les-Blanches.*
Fontanella seu S. Wandregisilus	*S. Wandrille.*
Fontanetum ...	*Fontenay.*
Fulcardi Mons ...	*Foucarmont.*
Fulium	*Feuillans.*
Fusniacum ...	*Foigny.*
Gardum	*Le Gard.*
Gaudium	*La Joie.*
Gaudium Vallis ...	*Joyenval.*
Gemblacum ...	*Giblou* or *Gemblours.*
Gemeticum seu Gemeticus	*Jumièges.*
Genestonium ...	*Geneston.*
Genliacum ...	*Genlis.*
Gerciacum ...	*Jercis.*
Giffum	*Gif.*
Gimundum ...	*Gimont.*
Gomerifons ...	*Gomerfontaine.*
Grandissilva ...	*Grand Selves.*
Grestanium ...	*Grestain.*
Haia	*Les Ayes.*
Hambeia	*Hambye.*
Hermeriae... ...	*Hermières.*
Hunocurtum ...	*Honnecourt.*
Ibreium	*Ivry.*
Insula Dei ...	*L'Isle Dieu.*
Jotrum	*Jouarre.*
Laetiae	*Liesses.*
Langonium ...	*Langonet.*
Lanneium	*Lannoy.*
Lantenaco, B. Maria de	*Lantenac.*
Lesatum	*Lezat.*
Lilium	*Le Lys.*
Lioncellum ...	*Léoncel.*
Lira	*Lire.*
Locus Beatae Mariae	*Lieu Notre Dame.*
Locus Dei... ...	*Lieu Dieu.*
Longae	*Longue.*
Longus Pons ...	*Longpont.*
Lucella	*Lützel.*
Lucerna	*La Luserne.*
Luxovium... ...	*Luxeuil.*
Majus Monasterium	*Marmoutiers.*
Malmundarium ...	*Malmédy.*
Mansiada	*Mazan.*
Mansum Azilis ...	*Mas d'Azil.*
Maurimons, olim S. Calocerus	*Moiremont.*
Melbodium ...	*Maubeuge.*
Mellereium ...	*Melleray.*
Miciacus	*Micy.*
Monasterium Arremarense	*Montelimar.*
Monasterium villare	*Montivillier.*
Moncellum ...	*Moncel.*
Mons Benedicti ...	*Mont Benoit.*
Mons Morellus ...	*Montmorel.*
Montisburgus ...	*Montebourg.*
Morbacum ...	*Murbach.*
Mortuum-Mare ...	*Mortemer.*
Mosomagum ...	*Mouzon.*
Nealfia Vetus ...	*Néauphlé-le-Vieux.*
Nigella	*Nesle.*
Nivella	*Nivelle.*
Noa	*La Noë.*
Novigentum-subtus-Cociacum	*Nogent-sous-Coucy.*
Nucariae	*Noyers.*
Oratorium... ...	*Le Loroux.*
Orbacum	*Orbais.*
Origniacum ...	*Origny.*
Ortus Dei	*Olsberg.*
Palma	*Baume-les-Dames.*
Paracletus... ...	*Le Paraclet.*
Pessanum	*Pessan.*
Plessaeum Grimoldi	*Plessis Grimould.*
Pontiniacum ...	*Pontigny.*
Pornidium... ...	*Pornic.*
Portaglonium ...	*Bouillas.*
Praemonstratum ...	*Prémontré.*
Pratellum	*Préaux.*
Prulliacum ...	*Preuilly.*
Reclusum	*Reclus.*
Regalis Mons ...	*Royaumont.*
Ribodimons ...	*Ribemont.*
Rigniacum ...	*Rigny.*
Rupes	*Les Roches.*
S. Andreas in Goffer	*S. André en Gouffern.*
S. Audoenus ...	*S. Ouen.*
S. Austreberta ...	*S. Austreberte.*
S. Avitus Castrodunensis	*S. Avit de Châteaudun.*
S. Basolus... ...	*S. Basle.*
S. Caraunus ...	*S. Cheron.*
S. Carilefus ...	*S. Calais.*
S. Crux de Kemperlegio	*Quimperlé.*
S. Fuscianus ...	*S. Fuscian aux Bois.*
S. Georgius de Balcheri Villa	*S. Georges de Bocherville.*
S. Geremarus ...	*S. Germar.*
S. Gildasius de Nemore	*S. Gildas du Bois.*
S. Gildasius Ruiensis	*S. Gildas de Rhuys.*
S. Gislenus ...	*S. Guislain.*
S. Gregorius ...	*Münster-in-Gregorienthal.*
S. Guingalveus de Landevenecho	*Landevenech.*
S. Jacutus... ...	*S. Jacut.*
S. Judocus ...	*S. Josse-sur-Mer.*
S. Maria de Boquiano	*Boquen.*
S. Maria in Nemore	*Ruisseauville.*
S. Matthaeus ...	*S. Mahé.*
S. Mevennius ...	*S. Meen.*
S. Michael apud Dulencum ...	*S. Michel de Doulens.*
S. Michael in Teoracia	*S. Michel-en-Tiérache.*
S. Petrus Burguliensis	*Bourgueuil.*
S. Petrus de Relleio	*Rillé.*
S. Richarius ...	*S. Riquier.*
S. Salvator de Rotono	*Redon.*
S. Salvator Constantini	*S. Sauveur le Vicomte.*
S. Saturninus ...	*S. Sernin.*
S. Sidonius ...	*S. Saëns.*
S. Taurinus ...	*S. Taurin.*
S. Teodericus ...	*S. Thierry.*
S. Vedastus de Movolio	*S. Vaast.*
S. Victor apud Caletes	*S. Victor-en-Caux.*
S. Vulmarus ...	*Samer.*
S. Walaricus ...	*S. Valéry.*
Savigneium ...	*Savigny.*
Seracum	*Séry.*
Sigillariae	*Sellières.*
Sisium	*Sixt.*
Stella	*L'Étoile.*
Subdio	*Soyons.*
Sulleium	*Seuilly.*
Valassia, Vallis Ascii, Vallis Azonis	*Le Valasse.*
Validus Mons, Vallis Mons, Walonis Mons	*Valmont.*
Vallis Beatae Mariae	*Laval.*
Vallis Christiana ...	*Valchrétien.*
Vallis Clara ...	*Vauclair.*
Vallis Crescens ...	*Valcroisant.*
Vallis Masonis Masmunster	*Massevaux.*
Vallis Richerii ...	*Val Richer.*
Vallis Secreta ...	*Val Secret.*
Valloriae	*Valloires.*
Vetus Villa ...	*La Dieuville.*
Vicinae	*Voisins.*
Viconia	*Vicognie.*
Villa Lupa ...	*Villeloin.*
Villa Nova ...	*Villeneuve.*
Ulterior Portus ...	*Le Tréport.*
Ursi Campus ...	*Orcamp.*

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LVIII

FRANCE UNDER THE ANCIEN RÉGIME, 1600–1790

LVIII

FRANCE UNDER THE ANCIEN RÉGIME, 1600-1790

THE centralized monarchy which grew up again in France after the Hundred Years' War, under Louis XI and his successors, divided France into *gouvernements* each presided over by a governor whose functions were mainly military, but whose chief significance lay in his representing the crown against the disruptive tendencies of the feudal nobility. These divisions were in many cases based on the old feudal ones, but the greater had of necessity to be split up into districts of more manageable and less dangerous size. Under Francis I there were twelve principal governments: the *Isle of France*, *Normandy*, *Picardy*, *Brittany*, *Guienne* and *Gascony*, *Languedoc*, *Provence*, *Dauphiné*, *Auvergne*, *Lyonnais*, *Burgundy*, and *Champagne*. In 1618 there were twenty-five. In 1789 there were thirty-eight: *Paris*, *Isle of France*, *Picardy*, *Flanders*, *Champagne* and *Brie*, *Alsace*, the *Messin*, *Lorraine*, *Franche-Comté*, *Burgundy*, *Lyonnais*, *Dauphiné*, *Provence*, *Roussillon*, *Navarre* and *Béarn*, *Brittany*, *Normandy*, *Artois*, the *Boulonois*, *Nivernois*, *Bourbonnois*, *Berry*, *Auvergne*, *Foix*, *Limousin*, *la Marche*, *Angoumois* and *Saintonge*, *Aunis*, *Poitou*, *Saumurois*, *Anjou*, *Touraine*, *Maine* and *Perche*, *Orléannois*, *Languedoc*, *Guienne* and *Gascony*, *Havre*, *Toul* and the *Toulois*.

The power of the governors, however, was limited at a very early period by the *intendants*, officials more strictly dependent on the crown, and not drawn, like the governors, from the ranks of the provincial *noblesse*. In spite of the resistance of the local *parlements* and governors these were during the course of the seventeenth century introduced all over France. Their full title was intendants for justice, police, and finance, and their area of jurisdiction, the *généralité*, was a financial division of France, so called because there was in each a chamber of the *trésoriers de France*, who were also known as *généraux de finances*. But the duties and powers of the intendants were administrative as well as fiscal, and became so extended that the power of the governors was reduced to a shadow.

The names of the *généralités*, which were divided into *généralités des pays d'élection* and *généralités des pays d'états*, that is, those in which the taxes were levied and assessed by royal functionaries, and those which possessed local assemblies or estates which voted and assessed the money asked for by the crown, were as follows:—

Généralités des pays d'élection. Alençon, Amiens, Auch, Bordeaux, Bourges, Caen, Châlons, Grenoble, Limoges, Lyon, Montauban, Moulins, Orléans, Paris, Poitiers, Riom, Rochelle, Rouen, Soissons, Tours.

Généralités des pays d'états. Aix, Dijon, Montpellier, Rennes, Toulouse, Metz.

In addition there were some districts in which there was no chamber of *trésoriers de France*, but simply an intendant. These were not, properly speaking, *généralités*, but *intendances*. They were Besançon, Lille, Lorraine, Maubeuge or Valenciennes, Perpignan, Strassburg, and Trévoux. The name of the *généralité* was generally taken from the seat of its 'chamber.' In the *pays d'élection* they were subdivided into *élections*, the area of jurisdiction of an *élu*, the royal officer charged with the assessment of the taxes imposed by the crown. But the *généralités des pays d'états* included *élections* in their borders, and vice versa.

The territorial growth of France in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries begins with the acquisition of Bresse, Bugey, Valromey and Gex, ceded in 1601 by the Duke of Savoy in exchange for the marquisate of Saluzzo, which he had seized during the religious wars, and was now allowed to keep.

A second series of acquisitions came by the Treaty of Münster at the close of the Thirty Years' War in 1648. The treaty ceded (1) all Imperial rights over the Three Bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun and their districts, including Moyenvic, all three towns having been *de facto* in possession of France since 1552; (2) all Imperial rights and jurisdiction in the town of Breisach, the landgravates of Upper and Lower Alsace, the Sundgau, the provincial prefecture of the ten Imperial towns of Alsace, viz. Hagenau, Colmar, Schlestadt, Weissenburg, Landau, Oberehenheim, Rosheim, Münster in valle Sancti Gregorii, Kaisersberg, Türckheim, with the villages of Hochstadt, Niedereimseng, Harten, and Acheren pertaining to Breisach; (3) the right of keeping a French garrison in Philippsburg on the right bank of the Rhine.

Eleven years later, 1659, France made an important extension of her frontier at the expense of the Spanish dominions in the Low Countries. The Treaty of the Pyrenees ceded to her the town and city of Arras, with its bailiwick, Hesdin and its bailiwick (which had been in French hands since 1639), Bapaume and its bailiwick, Béthune and its bailiwick, Lillers, Lens, the county of St. Pol, Thérouanne and its bailiwick, Pas and its bailiwick, with all the other bailiwicks and *châtellenies* of Artois, except the towns and bailiwicks of Aire and St. Omer, and their appurtenances, dependencies and annexes, and the place of Renty if it were found to be a dependence of either of these: in *Flanders*, Gravelines (with Forts Philippe, l'Écluse, and Hannuin), Bourbourg and its *châtellenie*, and St. Venant: in Hainault, Landrécies and Le Quesnoy with their bailiwicks and annexes: in the duchy of *Luxemburg*, Thionville, Montmédy, Damvilliers, with their dependencies and annexes; the town and provosty of Ivoy and Chavency-le-chasteau; the town and provosty of Marville, Marienburg and Philippeville, situated on the Sambre and Meuse respectively; in the *south*, Avesnes, the whole of the county of Roussillon, with the parts

FRANCE
1600 – 1790

English Miles
20 10 0 20 40 60 80 100

REFERENCE.

Territory acquired under Henry IV. 1589 – 1610
" " " Louis XIII. 1610 – 1643
" " " Louis XIV. 1643 – 1715
" " " Louis XV. 1715 – 1774

B. ..... Barony. | Mar. ..... Marquisate.
C. ..... County | Pr. ..... Principality.
D. ..... Duchy | V. ..... Viscounty

NORTH EASTERN FRANCE
showing the
ACQUISITIONS OF LOUIS XIV.
English Miles

REFERENCE.

French frontier 1659
" " 1678
Line of French barrier towns (1713 – 1715.)
" " Austrian " " (1715.)
Towns ceded to France 1659 ..... Bethune
" " " " 1668 ..... Tournai
" " " " 1678 ..... S. Omer
" " " " 1668, & lost in 1678 ..... Dinche

FRANCE before 1789,
showing the
FISCAL DIVISIONS AND ADMINISTRATIVE CAPITALS
English Miles.
0 50 100 200 300 400

REFERENCE

Capitals of Généralities of Pays d'élection, thus ..... Caen.
" " " Pays d'états " ..... Montpellier.
" " " Intendances " ..... Valenciennes.
Provinces des cinq grosses fermes
" reputées étrangères
" de l'étranger effectif

Environs of PARIS
Eng. Miles.

Long. West 2 of Greenw. 0 Long. East 2 of Greenw. 4 6

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of the *viguerie* of Conflans, and the county of Cerdagne on the French side of the Pyrenees. In addition the important stipulation was made that the Spanish towns between Avesnes, Philippeville, and Marienburg, and the French frontier should not be fortified so as to cut off the latter from France.

Nine years later, at the close of the war of devolution by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1668), France gained another series of towns on her north-east frontier: Charleroi, Binche, Ath, Douai, La Scarpe, Tournai, Oudenarde, Lille, Armentières, Courtrai, Bergues, and Furnes, and all their dependencies and annexes.

In 1678, by the Treaty of Nimeguen (Nijmegen), France restored to Spain Charleroi, Binche, Ath, Oudenarde, and Courtrai, but gained Valenciennes, Bouchain, Condé, Cambrai and the Cambrésis, Aire, St. Omer, Ypres, Werwick, Warneton, Poperingue, Bailleul, Cassel, Bavai, and Maubeuge. On the Rhine the right of garrisoning Philippsburg was given up by France in exchange for Freiburg. The *Franche-Comté* was also formally ceded to France.

By the Treaty of Ratisbon, which followed the famous 'réunions' in 1684, France gained legal recognition of its annexation of Strassburg and Kehl. Kehl and Freiburg were given up by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697.

By the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, France ceded to Savoy the forts of Exilles and Fenestrelles, the valleys of Oulx, Pragélas, Sézane, Bardonèche, and Château-Dauphin, but received the valley of Barcelonette and its dependencies. She lost in the Low Countries: Menin, Tournai, Furnes, Ambacht, Knoque, Loo, Dixmuyde, Ypres, Poperingue, Warneton, Commines, Werwick. By the Treaty of Rastadt in 1714, Landau was gained from the Empire. The cession of Lorraine to France by Duke Francis III in 1736 was, with the exception of the acquisition of the island of Corsica in 1768, the last accession of territory which France received before the revolution of 1789; but France did not enter into the actual possession of Lorraine until the death of Stanislas Leszczynski in 1766. Within the frontier thus completed, the papal territory of the Venaissin was the only part not French. Its neighbour the principality of Orange was ceded to France in 1713.

An inset map shows the great fiscal divisions of France on the eve of the Revolution. Like most continental countries France was during the Middle Ages covered with barriers to commerce in the shape of tolls or customs-duties, which were levied by the different local powers, whether feudal barons, towns, bishops, or abbeys. Colbert, in 1664, wished to remove all these and establish a uniform duty at the frontier in their place. But the local resistance was so strong that he only succeeded in introducing a revised tariff into fourteen provinces, which were called the *provinces des cinq grosses fermes*, because he abolished a number of the smaller and less profitable duties, reducing the number to five. Thus in 1789 France was fiscally divided into three parts:—

1. The provinces of the five great *fermes* (subject to the tariff of 1664): *Normandy*, *Picardy*, *Boulonais*, *Champagne*, *Bresse*, *Bugey*, *Dombes*, *Beaujolais*, *Berry*, *Poitou*, *Aunis*, *Anjou*, *Maine*, *Bourbonnais*.

2. The provinces *réputées étrangères* (as regards the legislation of 1664): *Lyonnais* and *Forez*, *Dauphiné*, *Provence* (with the exception of *Marseilles* and its territory), *Languedoc*, *Foix*, *Roussillon*, *Guienne*, *Gascony*, *Saintonge*, the islands of *Ré* and *Oléron*, *Auvergne*, *Limousin*, *Périgord*, *Angoumois*, *Flanders*, *Hainault*, *Artois* and *Cambrésis*, *Brittany* and *Franche-Comté*.

3. The *étranger effectif* (acquired since 1664, or privileged). The *Three Bishoprics*, *Lorraine*, *Alsace*, the *Venaissin*, the territory of *Marseilles*, *Labourd*, *Gex*, *Dunkirk*.

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For further information, see C. G. de Koch and F. Schoell, 'Histoire abrégée des traités de paix entre les puissances de l'Europe depuis la paix de Westphalie,' vol. i (Brussels, 1837); H. Vast, 'Les grands traités du règne de Louis XIV, 1648–1659' (Paris, 1893); Dumoulin, 'Description générale du royaume divisé en généralités' (2 vols., Paris, 1762–67); P. Boiteau, 'Etat de la France en 1789' (Paris, 1861); A. Chéruel, 'Dictionnaire historique des institutions, mœurs et coutumes de la France' (2 vols., Paris, 1884). The 'Atlas géographique et universel par Guil. de l'Isle et Phil. Buache' (Paris, 1787, 2 vols.) gives maps on a large scale of the *généralités* and governments of France divided into *élections*.

LIX

THE FRENCH EMPIRE IN 1810

LIX

THE FRENCH EMPIRE IN 1810

THIS Plate exhibits France at the moment of her widest extension. Since the revolutionary conquests of France from 1789 to 1809 have been already shown in Plates XI and XII, it is only necessary here to describe (1) the division of France into departments, 1789–1790; (2) the extension of the departmental system following on the French conquests, 1792–1810; and (3) the territorial changes carried out by NAPOLEON after the war of 1809 for the purpose of increasing the indirect influence of France in Europe.

1. The Constituent Assembly, influenced by the universal desire, which had been fully expressed in the Cahiers, for greater administrative simplicity, decreed (November 11 and 12, 1789) that France should be divided into equal departments, seventy-five or eighty in number, and that each department should be divided into nine districts, each district into ten cantons, and each canton into ten municipalities. The work of delimitation was entrusted to the Committee of the Constitution, but practically the boundaries of each department were settled by the deputies of the province concerned. Still, the work of effacing the old provincial outlines met with considerable resistance. Forez did not wish to be joined to the Lyonnais and Beaujolais; the Basque Provinces objected to the union with Béarn; Aunis desired to be a department by itself; Dauphiné protested against subdivision; there was a party in Brittany desirous of conserving the old privileges of the province. However, on January 15, 1790, the Assembly decreed the division of France into eighty-three departments, since it was found that a division into eighty equal districts was impossible, and on February 26, 1790, the names of the departments were voted. These were taken, in order to obliterate as far as possible the sentiment of provincial patriotism, from the names of rivers and mountains and sea-coasts. The idea which presided over the delimitation was in fact to destroy provincial jealousies by carving France into a number of divisions as equal as possible in extent. In some cases provinces were simply subdivided, as, for instance, Languedoc into seven, Guienne into four, Brittany into five, Provence, Dauphiné, Poitou, severally into three departments. In other cases there was less consideration paid to the old boundaries. Thus three departments were formed out of the amalgamation of the Auxerrois and Burgundy; one out of the amalgamation of the Bourbonnais and the Haute Marche; one out of Lyonnais, Forez, and Beaujolais; four out of Champagne, Sedan, and Carignan; five out of Normandy and Perche. The addition of *Corsica* brought up the number of departments to eighty-four. On November 19, 1793, the Department of the Rhône and Loire was divided into the Department of the Loire and the Department of the Rhône. In the same year Corsica was subdivided into Golo and Liamone, which brought the number to eighty-six. The department of the Tarn and Garonne was created in 1808.

There was at first some difficulty in settling the administrative capitals in the new departments, owing to intermunicipal rivalry, and it was even suggested that the towns should be known by numbers. For a time a provisional system of alternating capitals was adopted for some departments, but on September 11, 1791, the *chefs-lieux* were definitely fixed. All these departments were ruled by elected administrators until the creation of prefects and sub-prefects by the law of February 17, 1800 (28 Pluviose, an VIII).

2. We have now to trace the extension of the departmental system consequent upon the revolutionary conquests. On November 27, 1792, *Savoy* was formed into the Department of Mont Blanc; on January 31, 1793, the county of *Nice* became the Alpes Maritimes. The bishopric of *Basle* and the district of Porrentruy, which had become the Rauracian Republic (December 19, 1792), became the Department of Mont Terrible (March, 1793) and remained so till 1800, when it was annexed as a Sous-préfecture of the Department of the Haut Rhin. On May 17, 1795, the Electorates of *Treves*, *Mentz*, *Cologne*, and the duchies of *Juliers*, *Guelders*, and *Cleves* were formed into the Departments of the Roer, Rhine and Moselle, Mont-Tonnerre, and Sarre. On August 31, 1795, the Committee of Public Safety, anticipating the convention which voted the annexation of the *Low Countries* and the *Principality of Liége*, provisionally divided the lands seized from Austria and the Bishop of Liége into nine departments. This division was ratified by the decree of October 1, 1795 (9 Vendémiaire, an IV), which charged the representatives 'en mission' with the duty of rectifying the limits of the departments and cantons of what is now Belgium. The names of the 'départements réunis,' as they were then called[1], were Dyle, Escaut, Forêts, Jemappes, Lys, Meuse-Inférieure, Deux-

[1] The name was afterwards extended and more specially applied to the Rhenish departments.

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Nèthes, Ourthe, Sambre et Meuse[1]. Here, as in France, the denominations were, with two exceptions, borrowed from physical geography, and here, too, very little regard was paid to older political or administrative boundaries. Thus the Department of Meuse-Inférieure was formed of lands which had belonged to five states, Holland, Liége, the Empire, the Austrian Low Countries, and Prussia. For a time Dutch Flanders, though attached to the Escaut, formed a separate administrative division, but it was merged in the department on February 13, 1796. The administrative divisions so formed substantially exist at the present day; thus Brabant corresponds to the Dyle, Luxemburg to Forêts, Hainault to Jemappes, Namur to Sambre and Meuse[2], and so forth.

On April 7, 1798, the territory of *Geneva* was formed into the Department of the Léman. On April 2, 1801, *Piedmont* was made a military division of France and carved into six departments under Jourdan as Administrator-General. The departments were Marengo, Po, Tanaro, Sesia, Dora, and Stura. Piedmont was fully incorporated September 11, 1803, and the annexation of the *Ligurian Republic* (1805) produced three new departments, the Apennines, Genoa, and Montenotte. The annexation of the *Papal States* (1809) brought two new departments, Tevere and Trasimeno. *Holland* was annexed and divided into seven departments, December 13, 1810:—Bouches de la Meuse, Zuiderzee, Yssel Supérieur, Bouches de l'Yssel, Frise, Ems Occidental, and Ems Oriental. The Vallais was annexed in 1810 and formed into the Department of the Simplon, while by a decree of December 13, 1810, France still further extended her territories in order to command the mouths of the Ems, the Elbe, and the Oder, and to obtain a port on the Baltic. The four new departments—Lippe, Ems Supérieur, Bouches du Weser, and Bouches d'Elbe—were formed at the expense of the Grand Duchy of *Berg*, the kingdom of *Westphalia*, and the states of the Princes of *Salm*, and of the Dukes of *Arenburg*, *Oldenburg*, and *Lauenburg*. Lastly, the three remaining free Imperial towns, *Bremen*, *Lübeck*, and *Hamburg*, were incorporated in the new departments. If we add to the list of the departments so formed the Taro, formed out of the duchies of *Parma* and *Piacenza*, and the Arno, Méditerranée, and Ombrone, formed from the States of *Tuscany*, ceded to France in 1797, the total number of departments reaches 130, as shown in the table subjoined.

The direct influence of France in Europe was further increased by the annexation by the Treaty of Vienna (October 14, 1809) of the South-Eastern Provinces of Austria, i. e. the circle of *Villach* in Carinthia, all *Carniola*, *Görz*, the county of *Montefalcone*, *Trieste*, *Ragusa*, *Fiume*, and civil and military *Croatia*, which, together with *Dalmatia* (ceded by the kingdom of Italy, March 3, 1810), went to form the Illyrian Provinces, which were governed by General Marmont.

3. Lastly, we have to notice some other territorial changes consequent upon the war of 1809, and posterior to those exhibited in Plates XI and XII. They are as follows—

(1) The augmentation of the Grand Duchy of *Warsaw* at the expense of Austria, October 14, 1809.

(2) The augmentation of the kingdom of *Westphalia*, which (January 14, 1810) absorbed the rest of Hanover and Lauenburg.

(3) The acquisition of *Southern Tyrol* from Bavaria by the kingdom of Italy, October 14, 1809.

(4) The formation of the Grand Duchy of Frankfort, 1810, comprising *Frankfort*, the county of *Wetzlar*, and the principalities of *Aschaffenburg*, *Hanau*, and *Fulda*, in favour of the Archchancellor Dalberg, who adopted Eugène Beauharnais as his heir.

(5) The strengthening of *Bavaria* mainly at the expense of Austria: i. e. by the acquisition (1809) of Salzburg, Berchtesgaden, and the Inn-Viertel (from Austria), of Baireuth, 1810 (from France, which had kept it since 1805), and of Ratisbon (from France, which had taken it from the Grand Duchy of Ratisbon).[1]

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[1] The departments of Forêts and Ourthe each gained a canton by the annexation to France of the duchy of *Bouillon* (October 26, 1795), part of which also went to swell the Ardennes.

[2] For details as to the exact difference of frontiers between the departments of 1795 and the provinces of to-day see A. Orts, 'La Guerre des Paysans,' p. 10.

[1] See Stockvis, 'Manuel d'Histoire, de Généalogie, et de Chronologie de tous les Etats du Globe'; Lavisse and Rambaud, 'Histoire Générale,' viii, ix; Boursin and Challamel, 'Dictionnaire de la Révolution Française'; the 'Moniteur'; Daguet, 'Histoire de la Confédération Suisse'; Rambaud, 'Les Français sur le Rhin'; Hélie, 'Les Constitutions de la France'; Lanzac de Laborie, 'La Domination Française en Belgique, 1795–1814.'

LIST OF THE PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES MAKING UP THE 130 DEPARTMENTS OF 1810.

Old Provinces and Territories.	*Departments.*	*Number of Departments.*
Provence, Avignon, Venaissin	*Basses Alpes, Bouches du Rhône, Var, Vaucluse*	4.
Dauphiné	*Hautes Alpes, Drôme, Isère*	3.
Franche-Comté...	*Doubs, Jura, Haute Saône*	3.
Alsace	*Bas Rhin, Haut Rhin*	2.
Lorraine, Trois-Evêchés, Banois	*Meurthe, Meuse, Moselle, Vosges* ...	4.
Champagne, Sédan, Bouillon, Philippeville, Mariembourg, Givet, Charlemont	*Ardennes, Aube, Marne, Haute Marne*	4.
The two Flanders, Hainault, Cambrésis, Artois, Boulonois, Calaisis, Ardrésis	*Nord, Pas de Calais*	2.
Isle de France, Paris, Soissonnois, Beauvaisis, Amiénois, Vexin-François, Gatinois	*Aisne, Oise, Seine, Seine et Oise, Somme, Seine et Marne*	6.
Normandy and Perche... ...	*Manche, Calvados, Eure, Orne, Seine Inférieure*	5.
Brittany...	*Côtes du Nord, Finistère, Ille et Vilaine, Loire Inférieure, Morbihan*	5.
Haut et Bas Maine, Anjou, Touraine, and Saumurois	*Indre et Loire, Mayenne, Maine et Loire, Sarthe*	4.
Poitou and part of the Marches Communes	*Vendée, Deux Sèvres, Vienne*	3.
Orléanois, Blaisois, Pays Chartrain	*Eure et Loir, Loir et Cher, Loiret* ...	3.
Berry	*Indre, Cher*	2.
Nivernois	*Nièvre*	1.
Burgundy, Auxerrois, Sénonois, Bresse, Bugey, Valromey, Dombes	*Ain, Saône et Loire, Côte d'Or, Yonne*	4.

LIX. *THE FRENCH EMPIRE IN* 1810

Old Provinces and Territories.	*Departments.*	*Number of Departments.*
Lyonnois, Forez, Beaujolais ...	*Loire, Rhône*	2.
Bourbonnois	*Allier*	1.
Marche, Dorat, Haut et Bas Limosin	*Corrèze, Creuse, Haute Vienne* ...	3.
Aunis and Saintonge	*Charente Inférieure*	1.
Angoumois	*Charente*	1.
Périgord	*Dordogne*	1.
Bordelois, Bazadois, Agénois, Condomois, Armagnac, Chalosse, Pays de Marsan, Landes	*Gironde, Landes, Lot et Garonne, Gers*	4.
Quercy	*Lot*	1.
Rouergue	*Aveyron*	1.
Béarn and Labourd	*Basses-Pyrénées*	1.
Bigorre and Quattre-Vallées ...	*Hautes-Pyrénées*	1.
Couserans and Foix	*Arriége*	1.
Roussillon	*Pyrénées-Orientales*	1.
Languedoc, Comminges, Nébouzan, Rivière-Verdun	*Ardèche, Aude, Gard, Haute-Garonne, Hérault, Lozère, Tarn*	7.
Vélay, Haute et Basse Auvergne	*Cantal, Haute Loire, Puy de Dôme* ...	3.
The islands of Corsica and Capraja	*Golo, Liamone*	2.

Old Territories.	*Departments.*	*Number of Departments.*
Nice, Savoy, Geneva	*Alpes Maritimes, Mont-Blanc, Léman*	3.
Austrian Hainault and Flanders, Brabant, Liége	*Dyle, Escaut, Forêts, Jemappes, Lys, Meuse-Inférieure, Deux-Nèthes, Ourthe, Sambre et Meuse*	9.
The left bank of the Rhine ...	*Roer, Sarre, Rhin et Moselle, Mont-Tonnerre*	4.
Piedmont and the Ligurian Republic	*Apennins, la Doire, Gênes, Marengo, Montenotte, Pô, La Sésia, La Stura*	8.
Parma and Piacenza	*Taro*	1.
Tuscany...	*Arno, Méditerranée, Ombrone* ...	3.
The States of the Church ...	*Rome (Tevere), Trasimène*	2.
Holland and East Friesland ...	*Bouches de la Meuse, Bouches de l'Yssel, Ems Occidental, Ems Oriental, Frise, Yssel Supérieur, Zuiderzée*	7.
The Vallais	*Simplon*	1.
The Hanseatic towns, Lauenburg, &c.	*Bouches de l'Elbe, Bouche du Weser, Ems Supérieur*	3.
Part of the circle of Westphalia	*Lippe*	1.
The country between the Waal, the Donge, the Meuse, and the Roer	*Bouches du Rhin*	1.
The islands of Walcheren and South Beveland	*Bouches de l'Escaut*	1.

LX

THE SPANISH PENINSULA. 1263–1492

LX

THE SPANISH PENINSULA. 1263-1492

THE suddenness and rapidity with which the Muslims possessed themselves of Spain are as remarkable as is the tardiness with which the Christians repossessed themselves of the country. Even the complete break-up of the Caliphate of Cordova, after the death of the great minister Al Mansūr in 1002, led to no great immediate advance of the Christians, and, after almost daily fighting for four hundred years, the beginning of the twelfth century found a comparatively small part of the peninsula in their firm and undisputed occupation. As late as 1195, after their victory at *Alarcos*, near Calatrava, in New Castile, the Muslims were able to destroy places as far north as the important cities of *Salamanca* and *Guadalajara*.

The dissensions among the rival Muslim tribes, the decay of the Almoravids and the Almohads, and, above all, the alliance between Peter II of Aragon and Alfonso VIII of Castile, paved the way for the great Christian victory at the *Navas de Tolosa* in 1212, between the Sierra Morena and the upper waters of the Guadalquivir; and the character and determination of Berengaria, as regent and as queen, brought unity and victory to the Christians.

From 1212 to 1257 the progress was rapid, substantial, and unbroken. *Cordova*, so long the seat of Muslim rule, was taken in 1236; *Jaen*, the most important frontier fortress, fell in 1246, when St. Ferdinand made a highly favourable treaty with Ibn-al-Ahmar (Mohammad I), the founder of the Nasrid dynasty of Granada. *Seville* capitulated, and was occupied in 1248; *Xerez* fell in 1254, when the Muslim, El Obeyd, submitted to a treaty; and in 1257, by the Treaty of Niebla, the whole of *Algarve* and the surrounding territory was abandoned to Alfonso X. In 1261 indeed Xerez and the neighbourhood revolted, and maintained independent rights until 1264. But after that date they ever remained in the possession of the Christians. *Tarifa* was taken by Sancho the Brave in 1285, and *Gibraltar* by Ferdinand IV in 1309; but this latter fortress was soon lost again, and not recovered until 1462.

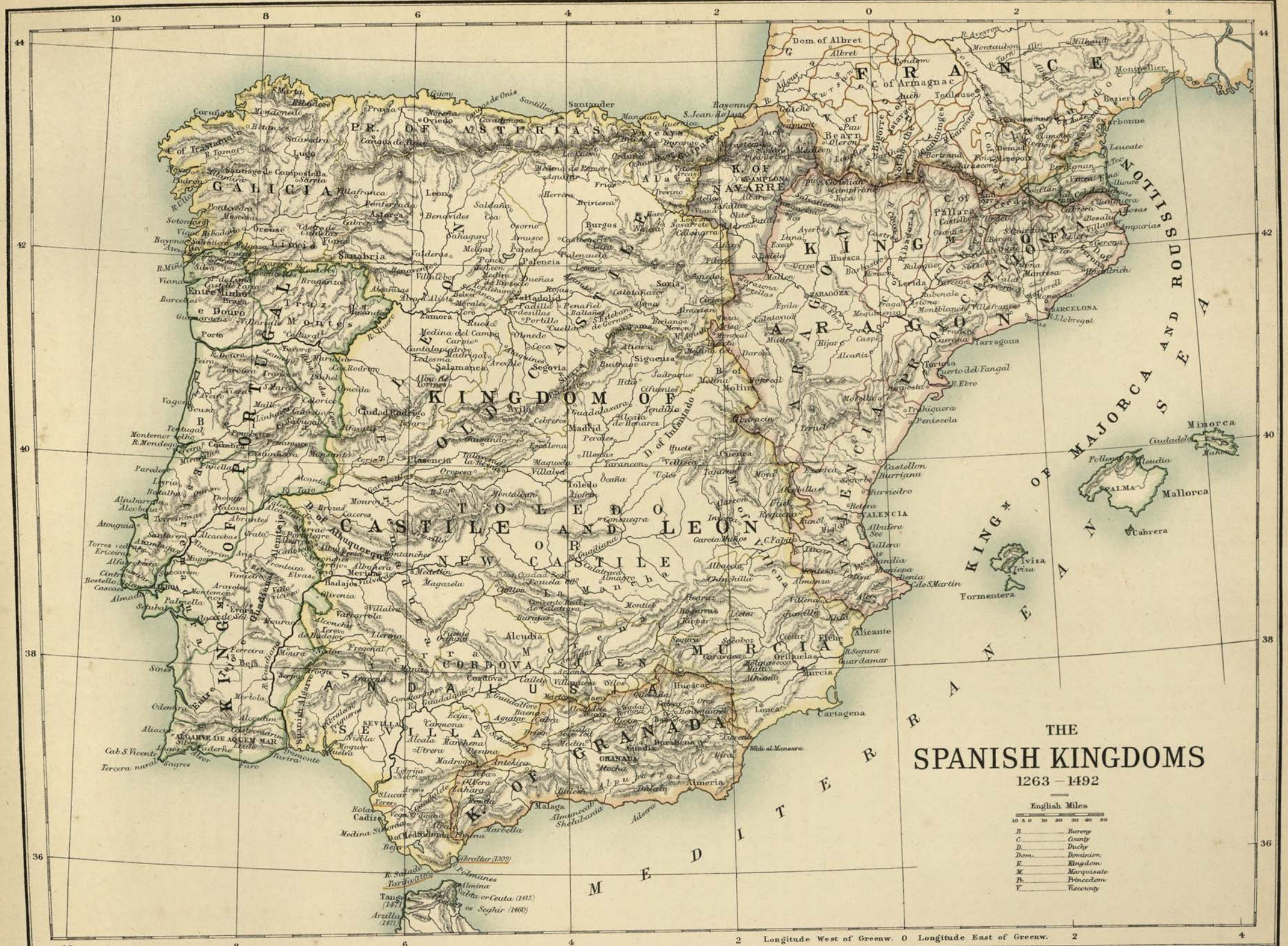
In 1262 the boundaries of *Portugal* were practically the same as they are to-day. In 1095 Alfonso VI of Castile, after various victories over the Muslims in the old province of *Lusitania*, conferred the government of that country from the Minho to the Tagus on Henry of Besançon, who had married his natural daughter Teresa; and their son Alfonso continued his father's government, and, having routed the Muslims in a great and decisive battle at Ourique (in 1139) on the Corbos, an affluent of the Guadiana, he assumed the title of King of Portugal.

Algarve [*Al Gharb* = the West], the south-west corner of Europe, was invaded by the Portuguese under their king Sancho I in 1189, but their advantage was partial and transitory. Between 1250 and 1252 Algarve was taken and occupied by the Castilian troops of Alfonso X with the help of some Portuguese allies, and especially through the assistance of the knights of the great Military Orders; and after a vast amount of bickering between Castilians and Portuguese as to the disposal of the newly acquired territory it was agreed that Alfonso III of Portugal should marry Beatrix de Guzman, a natural daughter of the King of Castile, and with her receive the sovereignty of Algarve to the west of the Guadiana, 1253—an arrangement to which effect was given by the Treaty of Niebla with the Muslims in 1257, when the Portuguese boundary was made to bend eastward of the river at a distance of some forty miles from its mouth, and enclose a large piece of territory on the left bank, before it once more touched the Guadiana some sixty miles further up stream.

There was a small portion of Moorish Algarve lying to the east of the lowest reach of the Guadiana, extending along the coast as far as the estuary of *Huelba*, and with uncertain boundaries in the desert inland country. This strip was retained by Alfonso X, and known for a short time as Spanish Algarve; but it soon became merged in the neighbouring Spanish province of *Andalusia*.

The most northern district of the African promontory over against Gibraltar was also known as *Algarve*, and remained in the hands of the Muslims until *Ceuta* on the extreme north-east was taken by the Portuguese in 1415. *Tangier*, the chief town on the west, passed into the hands of the Portuguese in 1472, in the reign of Alfonso V, surnamed the African. In emulation of the Portuguese Sancho I, who on his temporary conquest of European Algarve in 1189 had styled himself 'King of Algarve *de Aquem mar*' ('on this side of the sea'), King Alfonso the African took the title of 'King of Algarve *de Alem mar*' ('across the sea'); and thus the King of Portugal was and still is styled King of the Algarves.

Navarre in 1262 was completely independent of France and Spain. It had been an independent state ever since 1035, when Sancho the Great divided his territories among his sons, and Navarre fell to the lot of Garcia, and its boundaries after various changes became those indicated in the accompanying map. The southern, south-eastern, and south-western boundaries have been ever since 1035 practically those of the Spanish province. The northern, north-eastern, or French boundaries have, on the other hand, proved difficult to ascertain. It appears that the Kingdom of Navarre north of the Pyrenees included the more modern 'French Navarre,'



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with the adjoining districts of *Soule* and *Labourd*, but excluding the county or viscounty of *Béarn* until 1436[1].

On the side of *Aragon* a more rapid progress was made than on the side of *Castile* in the dispossession of the Arabs. Alfonso I, *el Batallador*, of Aragon, having possessed himself of all the country to the north of the Ebro, took *Saragossa* in 1118, and about the same time he extended his Christian conquests as far to the south-east as *Tarragona*, and on the south-west to the strong fortress of *Calatayud*. A century later a great forward movement took place. The Balearic Islands were conquered by Jayme I, 1229–1232, and his acquisition of Valencia in 1238 gave Aragon her furthest limits towards the south.

The map of 1262 has a peculiar interest for *Roussillon*. Charles the Great in 778 laid the foundations of the Spanish March. Tortosa, Tarragona, and the southern portions of this territory were afterwards recovered by the Muslims. But the Christians never lost their lodgement south of the Pyrenees. By the eleventh century the rulers of the County of Barcelona had absorbed the other districts on the Spanish side of the mountains. But Roussillon on the northern slope and the mountain valley of Cerdagne were disputed ground between their northern and southern neighbours. After they had been for many years a prey at once to the French and Aragonese, it was at length agreed, May 11, 1258, by the Treaty of Corbeil, between Louis IX of France and Jayme I of Aragon, that Roussillon should be henceforth considered as one of the exclusive possessions of the Spanish king. Four years later Roussillon, together with the county of *Montpellier* far away to the north-east, but recognizing the suzerainty of Aragon, passed on the death of Jayme in 1262 to his second son Jayme, together with the Balearic Islands, and these together formed an independent Spanish sovereignty until 1374, when, on the murder of Jayme of Majorca by order of Peter IV of Aragon, Roussillon once more became an integral part of the Aragonese dominions. A hundred years later, 1475, without any reference to the Balearic Isles, it was mortgaged by John of Aragon to Louis XI, who occupied it with his troops; but it was handed back to Aragon by Charles VIII in 1493.

Montpellier had come into the possession of Aragon by the marriage of Peter II of Aragon with Marie, daughter and heiress of Guillaume VIII of Montpellier, on the latter's death in 1204. Jayme III sold Montpellier to Philip VI of France in 1349.

On *Andorra*, see the preface to Plate 62.

[This map is the work of the late Mr. Ulick R. Burke, who revised the drawing of it before his unexpected and lamented death in the summer of 1895. The preface is printed, with some alterations in matters of detail, from his manuscript.]

[1] I have never been able to find a map of Navarre as it existed in, say, 1500; there is not one even in the great collection at the British Museum; but in the preparation of the larger sketch, from which the drawing of this map has been partly prepared, I have been greatly assisted by a number of very old maps in the Fagel Library in the University of Dublin.

LXI

THE ECCLESIASTICAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SPANISH PENINSULA

LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

LXI

THE ECCLESIASTICAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SPANISH PENINSULA

THE ecclesiastical history of the Spanish Peninsula falls into two broad divisions: the first relates to the Church which subsisted under Roman and Visigothic rule down to the Saracen conquest; the second to that which was slowly built up again out of the surviving fragments, as the Christians won back the land from the Mohammadans.

1. The five Visigothic provinces, shown in the small map on the accompanying plate, agree generally with the civil provinces into which Rome had divided the peninsula (see Plate I). The only important difference is that the province of *Carthagina* was enlarged at the expense of Tarracona, Gallaecia, and Lusitania. The limitation of *Gallaecia* was determined by its close correspondence with the boundaries finally set to the Suevian kingdom in the north-west; but the greater extent which this kingdom possessed in the early days of the Teutonic settlement is probably indicated by its two archbishopries at *Lugo* and *Braga*.

2. Out of nearly seventy Spanish bishops, fifty-six subscribe the canons of the Sixteenth Council of Toledo in 693[1]; of these, twenty signed for the last time[2]. Four sees have lost their record earlier. The cataclysm of the Saracen conquest of 710–713 seems to have overthrown the entire Christian organization, except in the great cities of *Seville*, *Granada*, and *Toledo*, and in a few places in the north-east and north-west extremities of the peninsula. Near the Pyrenees the bishopric of *Urgel*, and perhaps that of *Gerona* (*Gerunda*), had a continuous existence. In Gallaecia there are obscure signs of the survival of *Tuy* (*Tude*) until the tenth or the beginning of the eleventh century, but its regular succession of bishops only begins again in 1072; *Iria* seems to have continued until about 800, and not much later was revived at *Compostella* (*c.* 843), where the body of St. James had lately been discovered[3]; and it is just possible that the ancient see of *Britonia* or *Laniobria*, for a time connected with the monastery of *Dumium*, was continued at *Mondoñedo*, but the traces are exceedingly slight until 841, and the names of its bishops do not become regular until 866.

[1] Mansi, 'Sacr. Concil. Coll.,' xii. 84, 85. There are several elements of uncertainty in the computation, and the figures here given must be regarded as only approximate.

[2] The subscriptions to the Seventeenth Council in 694 are not preserved.

[3] Compostella was raised to an archbishopric in 1121.

3. The examples of Seville, Granada, and Toledo bear witness to the toleration which the Christians, here known (through corruption of an Arabic word) as Mozarabic, enjoyed at the hands of their Mohammadan conquerors. The see of *Seville* appears to have died out in 864; it emerges again in 937; but its regular succession begins about 1140. At *Granada*, or rather *Elvira*, a neighbouring place from which the bishops took their title, they can only be traced with difficulty down to about 1116. It became a titular see (for instance, in 1269 and 1437); but its real history begins anew when, after the Christian recovery of the kingdom of Granada, the capital was erected into an archbishopric, 1483–92. *Toledo* continues down to 956, and begins afresh in 1058, from which date its succession is unbroken.

The table on the opposite page will show the stages in the restoration of the Church in the peninsula. It will be noticed that some of the sees (as *Cordova*, *Malaga*, *Guadix*, *Almeria*, and *Baza*) were situated on strictly Mohammadan soil; but the great majority of the dates indicate plainly the steps in the Christian advance and its occasional interruptions. The dates followed by a colon represent the year, or approximate year, in which the bishop of a see makes his appearance. Dates followed by a line are those from which the succession is substantially continuous; when the line terminates with an arrow-head the succession runs on to the present day. Bishoprics which go back to the Visigothic period are printed in Roman letters; those founded in or after the Saracen occupation are in italics. Parentheses denote that the record is doubtful; square brackets, that the see was merely titular.

4. The accompanying map shows the division of provinces as they were arranged after *Portugal* had assumed a national position. Before 1224 the province of *Braga* had run southward beyond Coimbra and Castel Branco, though the see of *Lisbon* had been re-established in 1148, and that of *Evora* in 1166. Henceforward, while the province of *Compostella* held the Spanish lands, the Portuguese were divided under the provinces of Braga, Lisbon, and Evora. On the other side of the peninsula *Tarragona* suffered by the creation of a new province of *Zaragoza* for the central Aragonese territory. The Castilian conquests of *Seville* (1248) and *Granada* (1492) led to the formation of two provinces placed under these cities, and the immense province of *Toledo* was afterwards

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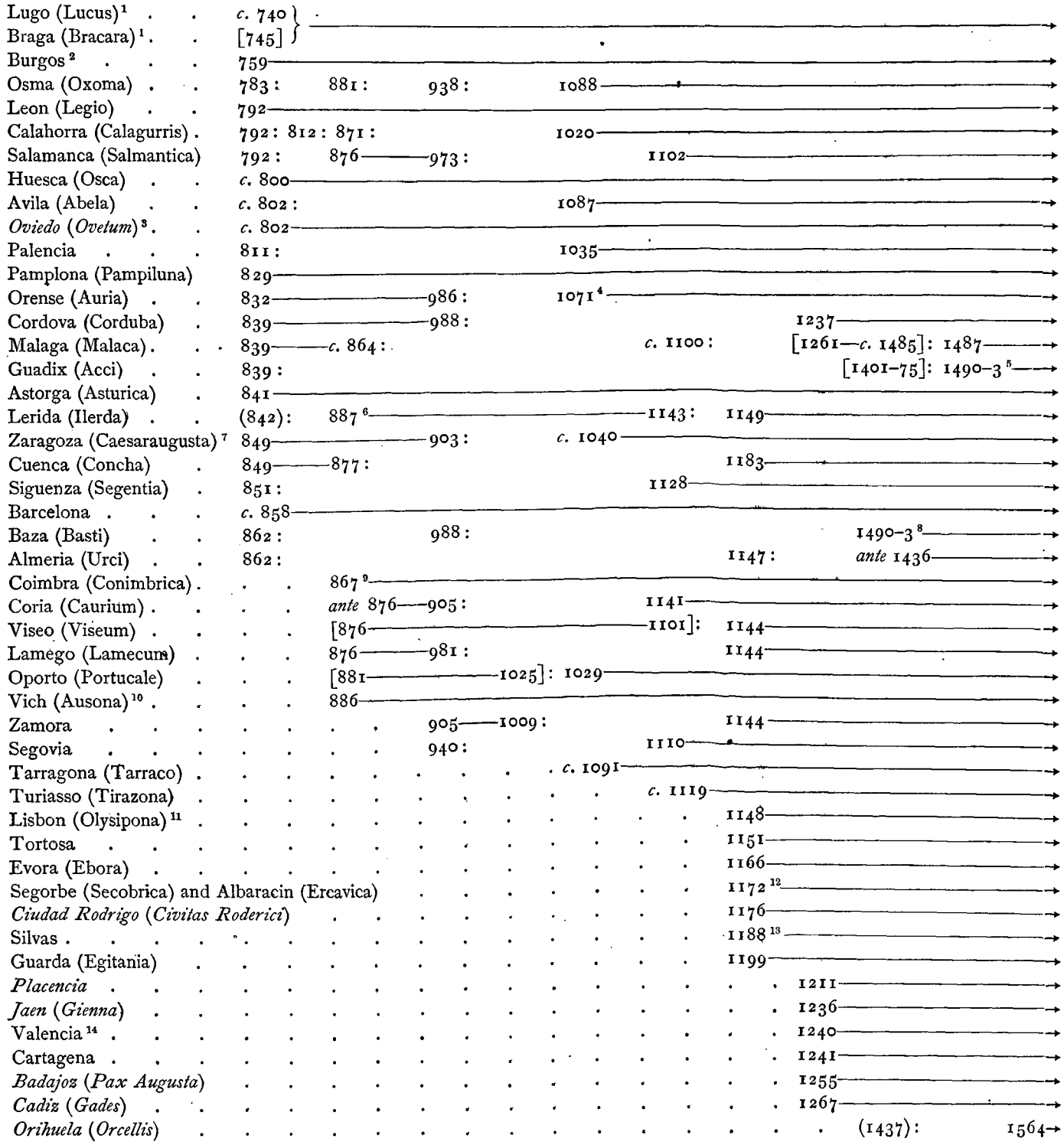
relieved of all its northern territory, except a portion to the north-west, and the province of *Burgos* thus constituted was enlarged by the addition of the dioceses of *Navarre*, which were transferred from the obedience of *Tarragona*.

5. The *Balearic Islands*, the three principal of which had each its bishop, were subjected after the Vandal conquest to the Sardinian province of *Cagliari*, and remained so until they were overthrown by the Saracens. In 1058 they were under *Barcelona*, but a bishopric of *Majorca*, with jurisdiction over the whole group, was established in 1237, and the islands became members of the province of *Valencia*. *Iviza* was again granted a bishop in 1782, and *Minorca* in 1795.


Lugo (Lucus)[1] . . c. 740
Braga (Bracara)[1] . . [745]
Burgos[2] . . . 759
Osma (Oxoma) . . 783: 881: 938: 1088
Leon (Legio) . . 792
Calahorra (Calagurris) . 792: 812: 871: 1020
Salamanca (Salmantica) 792: 876—973: 1102
Huesca (Osca) . . c. 800
Avila (Abela) . . c. 802: 1087
Oviedo (Ovetum)[3] . . c. 802
Palencia . . . 811: 1035
Pamplona (Pampiluna) 829
Orense (Auria) . . 832—986: 1071[4]
Cordova (Corduba) . 839—988: 1237
Malaga (Malaca) . . . 839—c. 864: c. 1100: [1261—c. 1485]: 1487
Guadix (Acci) . . 839: [1401–75]: 1490–3[5]
Astorga (Asturica) . 841
Lerida (Ilerda) . . (842): 887[6]—1143: 1149
Zaragoza (Caesaraugusta)[7] 849—903: c. 1040
Cuenca (Concha) . 849—877: 1183
Siguenza (Segentia) . 851: 1128
Barcelona . . . c. 858
Baza (Basti) . . 862: 988: 1490–3[8]
Almeria (Urci) . . 862: 1147: ante 1436
Coimbra (Conimbrica) . . . 867[9]
Coria (Caurium) . . . . ante 876—905: 1141
Viseo (Viseum) . . . . [876—1101]: 1144
Lamego (Lamecum) . . . 876—981: 1144
Oporto (Portucale) . . . [881—1025]: 1029
Vich (Ausona)[10] 886
Zamora . . . . . 905—1009: 1144
Segovia 940: 1110
Tarragona (Tarraco) . . . . . c. 1091
Turiasso (Tirazona) . . . . . c. 1119
Lisbon (Olysipona)[11] 1148
Tortosa 1151
Evora (Ebora) 1166
Segorbe (Secobrica) and Albaracin (Ercavica) . . . . . 1172[12]
Ciudad Rodrigo (Civitas Roderici) 1176
Silvas . . . . . 1188[13]
Guarda (Egitania) 1199
Placencia 1211
Jaen (Gienna) 1236
Valencia[14] 1240
Cartagena 1241
Badajoz (Pax Augusta) 1255
Cadiz (Gades) 1267
Orihuela (Orcellis) . . . . . (1437): 1564

[1] Lugo and Braga were sometimes held together; sometimes the one was subject to the other. Braga finally secured the supremacy towards the end of the eleventh century.

[2] The see was at Oca (Auca), then at Valpuesta (Vallis posita); but there are signs of a separate succession at Oca from 934; and Valpuesta, after being united for a while with Najera or Calahorra, lost its rank in 1067. The bishop was finally established at Burgos in 1075. He was made a Metropolitan in 1574.

[3] Archbishopric *c.* 902.

[4] The diocese seems to have fallen under the authority of Lugo during the interval before this date.

[5] United to Baza.

[6] After 1099 the see was removed to Barbastro and Roda, but it was restored to Lerida in 1149.

[7] Archbishopric 1318.

[8] United to Guadix.

[9] Under Christian rule from 1064.

[10] Archbishopric 971–1091.

[11] Archbishopric 1394; Patriarchate 1716.

[12] In 1577 Albaracin was erected as a separate bishopric.

[13] Removed to Faro 1577.

[14] Archbishopric 1458.

6. To the modern time of consolidation belong the following sees, the dates affixed to which are those of the formal creation of, not necessarily of the first appointment to, the see:—

In Spain.		In Portugal.	
Jacca	1571	*Leyria*	1545
Barbastro	1571	*Miranda*	1545[1]
Teruel (*Turia*)	1577	*Portalegre*	1551
Solsona	1593	*Elvas*	1570
Valladolid	1597	*Penafiel*	1770
Santander	1755	*Beja*	1770
Tudela	1783	*Castel Branco*	1771
		Pinhel	1773
		Aveiro	1774

[1] Removed to Braganza 1770.

LXII

THE SPANISH KINGDOMS SINCE 1513

THE principal change indicated in this map is the final incorporation of *Granada* into the Kingdom of Castile.

The Portuguese territory of the *Algarve* in *Africa* has now defined boundaries.

From 1580 to 1640 Portugal fell under the dominion of the kings of Spain, but this political change made no alteration in its geographical boundaries; on her recovery of independence, however, *Ceuta* remained Spanish.

The Kingdom of *Navarre* was conquered by FERDINAND THE CATHOLIC, and the greater part of the country passed to the Spanish crown by the Treaty of Pamplona, 1512, while retaining its separate constitution.

The northern or trans-Pyrenean districts were left to the house of ALBRET, and this *French Navarre*, as it was called, already united to France in the person of its king Henry III, who ascended the French throne as Henry IV, was formally incorporated in the greater kingdom in 1609.

Roussillon and *French Cerdagne* were acquired by the King of Aragon in 1493, but were finally ceded to France by the Peace of the Pyrenees in 1659.

The so-called independent Republic of *Andorra* is usually said to have so existed from a very remote antiquity, or at least from the time of LEWIS THE PIOUS, afterwards Emperor, who is said to have granted independence and the right of self-government to the Andorrans in 805. As a matter of fact *Les Vallées et Souverainetés d'Andorre*—as the little commonwealth is now officially designated—dates only, as far as its quasi-republican form is concerned, from the latter part of the thirteenth century. Previously the valley had been a mere part of the lordship of Urgel under the kings of Aragon. Certain rights were gradually acquired by the Bishop of Seo de Urgel to the south or Spanish side of the valley, and others by the Count of Foix to the north, and it was in consequence of disputes between these lords that the agreement known as the *paréage* of September, 1278, by which the independence of Andorra was actually secured, was negotiated and executed. Even at the present day the rights of the Bishop of Urgel are recognized in the constitution of the state side by side with those of the French government.

In the present map names of great families holding estates are written in upright italic letters.

The territorial position, first of Portugal and then of Spain, was immensely altered by the results of the explorations, discoveries, and conquests of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. At the time when the Portuguese were finding their way down the west coast of Africa, and had already passed Cape Verde, Pope NICOLAS V issued a bull (Jan. 8, 1454) granting to the King of Portugal all territories discovered south of Cape Bojador; and another bull, of SIXTUS IV (June 21, 1481), confirmed the treaty of Alaçora, made between Spain and Portugal in 1479, by which the exclusive right of making discoveries along the coast of Africa, as well as the possession of all known islands in the Atlantic, excepting the Canaries, were reserved to Portugal. The aim of the Portuguese was to reach the Indies by way of Africa, and in this aim they were to be undisturbed.

The discovery of *America* by Columbus in 1492 raised a different claim for the Spaniards, the monopoly of what was believed to be the western route to India; and this was promptly conceded by ALEXANDER VI. But it was necessary to safeguard the existing privileges of the Portuguese. Hence on May 4, 1493, the Pope declared that Spain was to possess all lands she might discover beyond a meridian line drawn 100 leagues 'west and south' (this is the perplexing definition of the bull) of the Azores and Cape Verde Islands. A year later (June 7, 1494) the Spaniards and Portuguese came to an agreement whereby the line was set 270 leagues further west—370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. The fixing of the point of departure led to disputes in both the Western and the Eastern hemispheres, for the treaty implied freedom of action to the respective parties in the entire hemispheres westward and eastward of the imaginary line. But the substantial results were (1) the right of the Portuguese to acquire Brazil in the west, and the extension of their conquests (after the Cape of Good Hope had been doubled in 1486 and 1497) over India and the islands in the East, and (2) the concentration of Spanish enterprise on the West Indies and the western regions of Central and South America, Mexico, Peru, Chili, &c., and the impulse to seek a new road to the Indies, above all to the Moluccas or Spice Islands, which led to the passage of Magellan's Straits in 1520. At the extreme limits of the partition line in both hemispheres a debatable territory remained, and it was only after long contention that the Moluccas were left free to Portuguese enterprise pending the repayment (which was never made) of a debt by Spain[1] (1529), while the Philippine Islands were conceded to the latter. In the west, the tract composing the greater part of modern Uruguay, as well as what are now the Argentine States of Entre Rios and Corrientes, remained disputed territory; but most of the settlements on the River Plate and the inland regions approached therefrom were Spanish. It was only, therefore, in its main principles that the partition line of Alexander VI was maintained[2].

[1] See the Relazione of Michele Suriano, 1559, in Alberi's 'Relazioni degli Ambasciatori Veneti,' ser. i. vol. iii. 341 seq. (Florence, 1853).

[2] Compare Mr. E. G. Bourne's article on 'The Demarcation Line of Alexander VI' in the 'Yale Review,' i. 1 (1892).

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The colonial possessions of *Portugal* in the sixteenth century were principally the following :—

All the islands off the west coast of Africa, including the Azores but excluding the Canaries.

The west coast of Africa, so far as it was occupied by any European power, down to Cape Negro.

On the east coast of Africa, the island of Socotra, and a long tract of coast land from Magadoxo through Zanzibar and Mozambique to Sofala and Delagoa Bay.

In Arabia, the south-eastern corner, Ormuz.

In Hindustan, the greater part of the west coast.

Ceylon.

Settlements in Java, the Sunda Islands, and the Moluccas, with a portion of New Guinea.

In America, Brazil and the coast lands as far as the River Plate.

Spain held in the east only the Philippine Islands, but in America possessed not only the West Indies, but Florida, Mexico, and the whole of what is now described as Central America, together with the strip of coast comprising Peru and Chili, and including claims eastward as far as the imaginary border-line laid down in the treaty of 1494. In the Atlantic Ocean the Canary Islands were likewise under Spanish rule. On the north coast of Africa, Spain also occupied intermittently several posts, the principal of which are Peñon de Velez, Melilla, Marsalquivir, Oran, Bugia, Biserta, Goletta, Tunis, and Tripoli, this last being granted by Charles V to the knights of St. John.

[This map was planned and revised by the late Mr. Ulick R. Burke, whose preface has in part been made use of for publication.]

LXIII

ITALY IN THE LOMBARD PERIOD, A.D. 568–774

LXIII

ITALY IN THE LOMBARD PERIOD, A.D. 568–774

ITALY had hardly been recovered from the Ostrogoths when it was invaded and half-conquered by another Teutonic people, the Langobardi (see Map III). The Emperor JUSTINIAN was saved, by just three years (for he died A.D. 565), the disappointment of seeing a large part of his most important conquest wrested once more from the Empire. The Lombards descended into Italy from *Pannonia* in A.D. 568. Within the next four years they won the greater part of the territory they were ever to possess. During the two following centuries their frontiers advanced here and there, at the expense of the Empire, but they did not succeed in gaining any new mass of territory, beyond the original conquests of ALBOIN, until the very eve of the disappearance of their own kingdom from the map as an independent political power, when they conquered the Exarchate of Ravenna.

In treating Italian geography of the Langobardic period, it is convenient to take 600 A.D. as a fixed point, and exhibit the demarcation of Imperial and Lombard Italy in that year, since we happen to have a Notitia of Imperial provinces dating from about that time[1]. Subsequent shiftings can be explained in relation to the map of 600.

§ 1. Lombard conquests down to 600 A.D.

A.D. 568. North-eastern Italy, including Forum Julii, Vicentia, Verona, most of Venetia; excluding the coast, Patavium, Mons Silicis, Mantua.

A.D. 569. Liguria (including Mediolanum); except Ticinum and the coast (Maritima Italorum). Also Cisalpine Gaul (except Cremona and some smaller places).

A.D. 570–572. Central and Southern Italy partially conquered; namely, Tuscia and the Duchies of Spoletium and Beneventum.

A.D. 572. Ticinum (after a siege of three years). Perhaps Mantua and Placentia.

A.D. 579. Classis [but this was lost 588; recovered and surrendered c. 720; taken by Lombards c. 725].

A.D. 588. Insula Comacina (on Lake Como).

A.D. 590. *A year of Lombard losses;* Mantua, Placentia, Mutina, Parma, Rhegium, Altinum, recovered by the Empire.

A.D. 592. Suana (in Tuscany).

§ 2. The result was that the Imperial dominion in Italy was broken up into three large groups. There was (1) the North-Hadriatic group, including Istria, Venetia, and the lands along the Hadriatic coast as far south as Picenum. (2) The central or Roman group, which came to be organized as the Ducatus Romae. (3) The southern group, including the Apulian coast, Calabria, Brittii, and Sicily. A continuous strip of territory, or at all events a series of strong places in the Apennines, of which the chief was Perusia, connected the first group with the second; while Naples and Salernum, with some adjacent places, were a sort of link between the second and the third. Besides these there were isolated districts here and there on the coast (e.g. Sipontum) which remained Imperial, and especially the group of Ligurian coast towns, which formed the province of Maritima Italorum. The Lombard territories, on the other hand, fell into two groups, severed by the line Eugubium, Perusia, Tuder. The southern group consisted of the Duchies of Spoletium and Beneventum, which, in consequence of their geographical remoteness from the seat of royalty at Ticinum, developed more independently than the northern Duchies (Tridentum, Forum Julii, &c.).

More exactly, the division of Italy in 600 A.D. was as follows:—

I. IMPERIAL.

(1) *North:*—(*a*) Maritima Italorum.

(*b*) Cremona, Placentia, Parma, Vulturina (near Parma and Brixellum), Brixellum, Mutina (?), Rhegium (?), Mantua.

(*c*) Istria, with Gradum; the Venetian coast, with Concordia, Opitergium, Altinum, Patavium, Mons Silicis; Comiaclum, Ravenna, Classis, the Aemilia (with Bononia and fortress of Brintum), the maritime Pentapolis (Ariminum, Pisaurum, Fanum, Senegallia, Ancona) and the inland Pentapolis (Aesis, Forum Semproni, Urbinum, Callis, Eugubium), Auximum; the Picentine coast (including Firmum, Asculum, Castrum Truentinum, Castrum Novum). Isolated, on the east coast further south, Ortona; and, off the coast of Tuscia, the island of Ilva.

(2) *Central.*—Perusia, Tuder, Urbs Vetus; Rome and the surrounding territory, southward to Gaieta and Formiae.

(3) *South.*—(*a*) Part of Campania, including Naples, Salernum, Amalfi, Sorrentum, Castrum Cumanum, Puteoli, Nuceria. Isolated, on the west coast, further south, Acropolis and Paestum.

(*b*) The Apulian coast and Calabria (including Tarentum). Isolated, on the east coast, Sipontum.

(*c*) Brittii and Sicily, with the small Sicilian islands, and Melite and Gaudos.

II. FRANKISH (Burgundian). Augusta Praetoria and Seusia, with their valleys.

III. LOMBARD. The rest of the Peninsula.

[1] The 'Descriptio orbis Romani' (in Greek) of George the Cyprian, ed. Gelzer, 1890. See the present writer's paper on The Roman Empire in 600 A.D., in the 'English Historical Review,' vol. ix. (1894), pp. 315 sqq.

ITALY

after the Lombard invasion

C. 600 A.D.

English Miles

20 10 0 20 40 60

Explanation

Lombard Kingdom

Exarchate of Italy

A date after the name of a town signifies the year of its capture by the Lombards.

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

§ 3. Subsequent conquests of the Lombards. (1) AGILULF conquered: A. D. 601 Patavium, 602 Mons Silicis, (? Brixellum), 603 Cremona, Mantua, Vulturina (and Mutina, Parma, Rhegium?), 605 Urbs Vetus, Balneus Regis. (2) Concordia was won before A.D. 640, and Sipontum probably before 642. (3) Maritima Italorum was conquered c. 640, and Opitergium and Altinum were taken about the same time. (4) c. 670 ROMUALD I of Beneventum conquered a large part of the heel of Italy[1], including the towns of Tarentum and Brundisium. (5) Between 701 and 705 Sora, Arx, and Arpinum were taken from the Ducatus Romae by GISULF, Duke of Beneventum. (6) Classis was taken by a Duke of Spoleto c. 720 (but afterwards restored); and Narni (probably also by a Duke of Spoleto) c. 725. (7) In 727 King LIUTPRAND conquered the Aemilia (including Bononia), most of the Pentapolis, and Auximum. (8) Ravenna seems to have been captured by the Lombards during Liutprand's reign, and reconquered for the Empire by the Venetians[2]. (9) In 742 Liutprand restored a number of towns and districts (belonging to the 'Patrimony of St. Peter') *to the Pope;* and in 743 he restored the country round Ravenna, and two-thirds of the territory of the Cesena, to the Empire.

Ravenna and the Exarchate were finally conquered by the Lombards about 750, and kept until the Lombard kingdom was overthrown by CHARLES THE GREAT, who incorporated all Italy in his dominion, except (1) the Duchy of Beneventum, (2) the Imperial possessions in the toe and heel.

It was in the seventh century, in the reign of the Emperor CONSTANS, that *Calabria* acquired a new signification. Constans seems to have united Brittii, Calabria, and Apulia into a single administrative district, with the official name Calabria, which, when the Empire lost most of the true Calabria, clung to the toe[3].

[1] Certainly not the whole: Hydrus (Otranto), for example, remained Imperial.
[2] Paulus, 'Hist. Langobard.,' vi. 54; Hodgkin, 'Italy and her Invaders,' vi. 483.
[3] See M. Schipa, in the 'Archivio storico per le province Napoletane,' 1895, p. 23 sqq.

§ 4. Growth of the Papal dominion. At the beginning of the eighth century the Ducatus Romanus was ruled by the Popes, but their territorial domain was largely increased during the eighth century. They gained both by the fall of the Exarchate and by the fall of the Lombard kingdom, through the intervention of the Frank kings.

At Quierzy (A.D. 754), PIPPIN drew up a formal deed (*donatio*) promising Pope Stephen II *justitiam beati Petri exigere*, and to restore 'cities and places,' without specification and not naming the Exarchate or the Pentapolis[1]. The Lombard king AISTULF promised Pippin to restore certain towns (not the whole Exarchate or Pentapolis) to the Pope, but when Pippin turned his back failed to fulfil the promise. (1) On Pippin's second intervention (A.D. 756) Ravenna and twenty-one other towns[2], in the Exarchate and Pentapolis, were handed over by the Lombards to the Pope, and Narnia, which had been formerly given by King Liutprand to Pope Zacharias, was restored. (These acquisitions are coloured *yellow* in the inset map.) (2) A.D. 757, King DESIDERIUS surrendered to the Pope Faenza, Imola, Ferrara, Cabellum, Tiberiacum (Bagnacavallo), (*olive* in inset map); and (3) after A.D. 759 he surrendered the territory of Bologna in the north; Ancona, Osimo, Umana, in the south; and Castrum Felicitatis, north of Perusia (*violet* in inset map). Under Charles the Great (4) the Sabinensis was acquired, c. A. D. 781 (*green*); (5) Populonium and Rosellae (Grosseto), c. A. D. 787 (*red*); (6) Suana and other Tuscan towns, c. A.D. 788–9 (*brown*). Capua seems to have been acquired before 789, possibly as early as 781; the other Campanian towns (Sora, &c.) perhaps as early as 778.

J. B. BURY.

[1] 'Cod. Carol.' vii; 'Vit. Hadr.' xli.
[2] The list in the 'Liber Pontificalis' (i. 454, ed. Duchesne) is: Ravenna, Ariminum, Pensauro, Conca, Fano, Cesinae, Sinogalliae, Esis, Forumpopuli, Forum Livii, Sussubium (= Castro Caro, above Forli?), Montefeletri, Acerreagium, Serra (it has been conjectured that these two places are between Jesi and Fossombrone), Montelucati (in the territory of Cesena), Castellum S. Marini, Vobio, Orbino, Callis, Luceoli (in the defile above Cagli), Eugubium, Comiaclum.

LXIV

ITALY, *c.* 850—1067

LXIV

ITALY, *c.* 850—1067

THE authority claimed or held by the Emperor and the Pope over different provinces was never clearly defined, and in many instances overlapped. The districts held or granted by the Pope are shown in the map by a red outline; those which he actually possessed by a pink body colour. Similarly the districts held or granted by the Emperor have a green outline, and those districts where his power remained undisputed have a green surface colour also. It is noticeable that the claims made by the Pope at different times never went beyond the limits marked by the line drawn from Luna to Bercetum and thence to Mons Silicis, which, according to the 'Vita Hadriani,' cap. xli., represented the limit of the grant of King Pippin. The rising power of the Emperors of the Saxon House in the tenth century involved the loss to the Pope of considerable territory.

The *Patrimony of St. Peter* included the Maritima, Sabina, and Campania. *Spoletum* first appears as a duchy (Ducatus Spoletanus), and seems to have included the *March of Firmum* (Marca Firmana). The Emperor, in 872, granted to the Pope Amiternum, Furconia, Nursia, and Valva; but the Pope is not known to have exercised authority at any of these places. Pope Victor II (1055–1057) was duke and marquis of Spoletum and Firmum, and the papal claims subsequently advanced on Spoletum may have been based on this temporary possession. The *Aemilia* and the *Exarchate of Ravenna* had formed part of the Pope's dominions: they had been lost, but were restored by the Emperor, Otto I, in 967. In 998, however, most of the territory was conferred on the archbishop of Ravenna. About the year 1000 the Pope bestowed the county of *Ferrara* on Marquis Tedaldo, and this district came to be included in the possessions of the House of Canossa (Canusium). The *Pentapolis* remained under the Pope, and the Emperor admitted his claim to it in 1001; but it is not known if the Pope's authority was ever exercised there.

Tuscany was ruled first by dukes, then by marquises. Boniface († 1052) of the House of Canossa bore the double title. The frontier between Tuscany and the Patrimony varied, and in times when the Pope was weak the marquis exerted rights in cities actually within Papal territory. Marquis Rainer sat in judgement at Cornetum in 1014. The power of the Marquis of Tuscany reached its climax under the lords of Canossa, whose possessions are coloured brown in the principal map on the accompanying plate. Besides Tuscany they included Ferrara, granted to them by the Pope, and Mantua, Regium, Mutina, and Brixia, granted to them by the Emperor. With a view to checking their influence the Emperor took a number of their cities under his direct protection, and thereby assisted their growth towards independence. Ferrara, Mantua, and Regium secured a charter in 1027, Parma in 1035, Modena in 1039; and the power of counts was granted to the bishops of Aretium in 1052, and of Vulterra in 1032. In the war waged by the Emperor against the House of Canossa, Pisa and Luca secured their privileges (1081).

The authority of the Emperor in the northern provinces steadily increased. The *March of Verona* with the *March of Aquileia* was separated from Italy in 952, and bestowed on the Duke of Bavaria. *Venice* was ruled by a duke or doge, who accepted the Imperial supremacy. The *Kingdom of Lombardy* was acquired by Otto the Great in 952, and united by him to the Empire in 963. Among its powerful princes were the Marquises of *Ivrea* (Eporegia, coloured yellow), of *Susa* (Segusia, coloured pink), and of *Montferrat* (whose chief seat was at Mons Bellus, coloured blue). Their title of marquis dated from Lombard times, and does not indicate any dependence on the Emperor. These princes received Imperial appointments outside their original territories, and in this quality bore the title of count. Thus the Marquis of Montferrat at one time held Savona, Aquae, and Vercellae; the Marquis of Susa held Asta. The complexity of their relations makes it difficult to determine the limits of the actual power they possessed.

Southern Italy at this time was divided between the Greeks and the principalities which represented the Lombard *Duchy of Beneventum*. The inset map shows the various places which were conquered and held between 800 and 1000 by the Saracens. They seized *Corsica* in 712, and destroyed its bishoprics, Nebium, Marana, and Accium; they conquered *Sicily* between 827 and 880. On the Riviera they held Naulum from 806 to 904, and Fraxinetum from before 900 to 970, and thence made expeditions which carried them into the valleys of what is now Switzerland. They held Baris from 841 to 871, seized Tarentum in 871, and made expeditions against Comaclum, Gradus, and Classis, which they sacked. On the western coast they held great strongholds at Fracta and Spinum till 916. They attacked Misenum

ITALY
C. 1000-1067
English Miles
20 10 0 20 40 60
Explanation
Districts held or granted by the Pope
" " " " " " Emperor
Duchies of South Italy
Lands held by the Saracens
Cities and Districts granted to the Normans underlined in Blue
SICILY
UNDER SARACEN RULE
On Same Scale
ITALY
between C. 850 & 1000
Eng. Miles
Explanation
S. Italian Duchies
Papal Possessions
Imperial Possessions
Places attacked or destroyed by the Saracens underlined green
Longitude East of Greenwich
Corsica
Sardinia
Alamannia
Baioaria
Burgundia
Provincia
Longobardia
Marca Veronensis
Romania
Tuscia
Spoletanus
Ducatus
Capitanata
Apulia
Calabria
Vallis Mazariae
Mons Gibellus
Terra Netosium
Neapolis
Salernum
Capua
Ravenna
Roma
Venetia
Mediolanum
Papia
Placentia
Cremona
Mantua
Verona
Vicentia
Patavium
Tridentum
Bellunum
Forum Julii
Aquileia
Tergestum
Justinopolis
Pola
Parentum
Ravenna
Ariminum
Pisaurum
Fanum
Ancona
Firmum
Trontus Fl.
Aprutium (Teramne)
Coenobium Trimitense
Ortona
Lanciano
Sipontum
Salpis
Aufidus Fl.
Canusium
Vigilia
Juvenatium
Baris (Barium)
Polymnianum
Monopolis
Brundusium
Tarentum
Oria
Lycium
Hidruntum
Neritonum
Gallipolis
Uxentum
Leucas
Bradanus Fl.
Metaurus
Tiberis Fl.
Portus Pisanus
Arnus Fl.
Albingaunum
Albintimilium
Nicia
Populonia
Massa
Elba
Grossetum
Umbronis Fl.
Castrum
Lilium
Accium
Nebium
Marana
Eaisana
Sarakusa
Syracusa
Mons Gibellus
Catana
Lipara
Nicotrum
Stilum
Squillacum
Hieracum (Geracia)
Rhegium
Bova
Tropea
Amantia
Strongulis
Columna
Calatanazarium
Tauromenium
Antetum
Panormus
Trapani
Marsala
Mazara
Caltabellotta
Camerata
Termini
Castrum Joannis
Mineo
Agrigentum
Caronia
Cephaludum
Messana
Milae
Liberi
Tabarnin
Maskala
Addarga
Kataniya
Wady Musa
Sarakusa
Kalat Minau
Kalat en-Nisa
Kalat el Bellut
Ras el-Bellut
Es Saka
Kerkini
Mozar
Marsa Ali
Tarabunush
Kalat en Rabi
Sinis
Karnis
Balerm
Kalsa
Kurulla
Bunfat
Kalat el Bahr
Kalat en-Nisa
Kalat Minau
Kasr Yanih
Gebel en-Nar
Bakdas
Karuiya
Tusa
Kalat Abi Tas
Armah
Kerkini
Rugusa
Sarakusa
Syracusa
Eaisana
Sardinia
Corsica
Oxford: Clarendon Press.
W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

in 845, Cajeta and Fundum in 846, and advanced on Rome. In consequence of their ravages, many bishoprics in Southern Italy died out; as Paestum, Vibona, Tauriana, and Grumentum. There is a break in the list of bishops of other cities—Catacium, Squillacium, Strungulis, and Bova. Caris was destroyed, it was restored as Cariate; on the site of Cosa arose the bishopric of Cassanum. Among the numerous recorded attacks of the Saracens are the sacking of the monastery of St. Vincentius in the Capuan province in 881, and of its neighbour, Mons Casinus, in 883, and again in 915. In 916 they were expelled from Fracta and Spinum, but their ravages in the south continued. They attacked Cusentia in 958 and 1009, Oria in 977, Matera in 993, and also Mons Pilosus; and in 982 they destroyed the Imperial army at Cutronum. Again they appeared in the north, attacking Pisa in 1011, and seizing Luna. In 1016 they suffered a serious defeat at Salernum.

The power of the Greeks increased in proportion as that of the Saracens receded. They were sometimes allied with the dukes of the South Italian provinces. Trade flourished between the cities held by them, or allied with them, and the East. Tranum, Baris, Brundusium, as well as Neapolis, Amalphi, and Salernum, traded directly with Constantinople, Antioch, and Palermo before the time of the Crusades. The Greek territory was entered by Otto the Great in 968–970, and by his son in 981 and 982: it was not again molested by the West-Roman Emperor, but the Byzantine power was diminished by the progress of the Normans. Both the Emperor and the Pope had claims on the South Italian duchies (distinguished by a purple colour in the inset map), which included the duchy of *Beneventum* and the principalities which split off from it. These various states were repeatedly united and again separated. Their limits are given on the large map. In 968 Pandulf Ironhead was recognized by the Emperor, Otto the Great, as Duke of Beneventum and Capua, and made Duke of Spoleto and Camerinum. He re-conquered Salernum. In 1052 the Pope obtained the city of Beneventum, which remained in his possession; and in 1077 the principality of Beneventum, as such, ceased to exist. *Salernum* split off from Beneventum in 840, and again in 981; its dukes became very powerful, and Waimar in 1039 called himself Duke of Apulia and Calabria. *Neapolis* at first included *Surrentum* and *Amalphi*, districts which appear to have been independent of Salernum since the ninth century. These small principalities were frequently allied to or controlled by the Greeks. *Cajeta* in 1014 obtained Fundum and Terracina from the Pope, although he was not actually in possession of those towns. In 1023 the Emperor asserted his authority over *Capua*; and in 1073 the Pope granted this province to the Norman, Richard of Aversa, whose son Jordanes was recognized by the Emperor in 1083. These South Italian principalities were gradually acquired by the Normans. A band of Normans fought in the service of the Duke of Salernum in 1016, and received *Aversa* in fief. Here, and in the cities which they took from the Greeks, 1040–42, they set up principalities (underlined in blue in the large map). The Pope in 1059 accepted the Norman, Robert Guiscard, as his vassal, and in 1073 he bestowed on him Apulia, Calabria, and Sicily, leaving him to conquer them. At the same time he bestowed Capua on Richard of Aversa.

Sicily throughout this period remained in the hands of the Saracens, and the places named in the map are those given by contemporary Italian writers. The Arabic names will be found in a separate inset map. *Sardinia* and *Corsica* were also in the hands of the Saracens. Little is known concerning these islands. Kallara (Cagliari) and Faisana in Sardinia are mentioned by El-Edrisi; Castel Sardo was founded in 1052, when the joint efforts of the Pisans and Sardinians succeeded in repelling the Saracens.

See Ughelli, *Italia Sacra*, 1717–22; Ficker, *Forschungen zur Reichs- und Rechtsgeschichte Italiens*; Repetti, *Dizionario geografico-fisico-storico della Toscana*, 1833–46; Amari, *Storia dei Musulmani in Sicilia*, 1854–72; *Jahrbücher des deutschen Reichs*, 1862, &c.; *Dizionario corografico dell' Italia*, 1868; Overmann, *Die Besitzungen der Grossgräfin Mathilde von Tuscien*, nebst Regesten, 1893; Heinemann, *Geschichte der Normannen in Unteritalien und Sizilien*, vol. i, 1894; Spruner, *Handatlas der Geschichte des Mittelalters* (ed. Menke), 1880; Droysen, *Historischer Atlas*, 1886.

LINA ECKENSTEIN.

LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

LXV

ITALY, *c.* 1060—1167

LIBRARY
OF THE
BOMBAY
BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

LXV

ITALY, *c.* 1060—1167

THE period illustrated by this map witnessed the establishment of the Norman kingdom in the south, the consolidation of the Imperial power in the provinces of the north, and the reduction of the Papal power within definite territorial limits.

The Normans after securing certain cities in the south (see Plate LXIV) received in fief from the Pope the provinces of Apulia, Calabria, and Sicily in 1073, while Jordan, prince of Capua, was recognized by the Emperor in 1080. The Normans gradually supplanted the Eastern Empire and the Lombard princes in Southern Italy, and the Saracen power in Sicily. In 1072 they took Palermo, and by 1090 they were in possession of the whole of Sicily: their capital was first at Messina, afterwards at Palermo. In 1127 Sicily was united to Apulia and Calabria, and Roger (II) in 1130 called himself king of Sicily. All the South Italian principalities were now merged in the Norman kingdom, the limits of which in the north included the former county of Chieti (Teate) and a number of cities which at one time were included in Spoleto, extending to the north as far as the Abruzzi (Aprutium). Naples was added in 1137 and Capua in 1139. This period marks the climax of the progress of the Normans, who extended their dominion to the east of the Adriatic and even made conquests in Africa. Many bishoprics were founded in Southern Italy and Sicily, and added to the influence of the Church.

The Pope at first profited by the weakness of the Emperor and gained in temporal and spiritual power, but this progress was hindered by the resistance of Henry V (1106–25). The wars for the possessions of the House of Canossa (Canusium) called for the frequent presence of the Emperor in Italy and led to an improved system of political government in town and country, which became conspicuous after 1125. The Pope however by no means abandoned his claim to provinces which were situated south of the line marked by the grant of Charles the Great, and these provinces were now held to include the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. But before the time of Frederick I, Barbarossa (1152–90), no attempt was made to define practically within territorial limits the respective authority of Pope and Emperor. The struggle over the possessions of the House of Canossa (see Plate LXIV) made a definition necessary. These possessions were generally described as the Lands of the Countess Matilda, *Terra Matildis*, extending from north of Mantua southward over the greater part of Tuscany. The Pope could not be brought to renounce his claims on these, but the progress of the Emperor and the outbreak of schism (1159) virtually restricted the authority of the Pope to the Patrimony of St. Peter, and even here the Emperor was not without some power.

In the provinces comprised in the Imperial system of administration the following changes in territorial limits may be noticed:—

The *Pentapolis* and the *March of Camerino* were merged in the *March of Ancona* (*Marca Anconitana*). This district was first referred to as a march in 1094; from 1139 it is treated as a separate province.

Tuscany (*Tuscania*) continued to be administered by an Imperial marquis of German birth (1116, 1137, 1152, &c.). Towards the close of the period it was included in a district ruled by a legate (1163). In 1152 Welf was appointed marquis over Tuscany, Spoleto, Ancona, the Terra Matildis, Corsica, and Sardinia.

The *Duchy of Spoleto* (*Ducatus Spoletanus*) was reduced in its limits by the advance of the princes of *Capua*, whose possessions were afterwards merged in the Norman kingdom. The boundaries of the duchy are not clearly defined, for in 1111 we find the Church claiming Eugubium as separate from Spoleto.

Ravenna and the adjacent province of *Romaniola* were administered as a duchy from 1118. The appointment of a duke of Ravenna and Romaniola in 1129 shows that the city was regarded as distinct from the surrounding district. The northern county of Ferrara, as well as Comaclum and Fiscalia, were apparently merged in Romaniola, though, strictly speaking, they formed part of the Terra Matildis, and the Pope in 1144 mentioned the rights which he held there.

The *March of Treviso* (*Marca Tarvisana*) lost all connexion with Bavaria about 1161. In 1127 Trent (*Tridentum*) had been separated to form an ecclesiastical principality of the German kingdom. The eastern part of the march (*Forum Julium*,

ITALY

C. 1060 - 1167

English Miles

20 10 0 20 40 60

Explanation

Districts held by the Pope

" " " Emperor

Longitude East of Greenwich

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W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

the later *Friuli*) was bestowed on the patriarch of Aquileia, and developed into a powerful principality. The district including Clavenna in 1157 passed to Suabia.

Lombardy (*Lombardia*) was an undisputed province of the Empire, but here changes were operating which eventually caused the principalities of Italy to disappear before the growth of the cities. The independence of the cities was resisted, and for a time with success, by Frederick I. In order to counterbalance their power the Emperor took under his direct protection the great feudal nobles of the land, who bore the hereditary title of marquis or count. The estates on which their titles were based were often scattered over different districts, but the particulars of their extent are obscure.

A feature of this period was the rise of the maritime cities of the north of Italy. *Pisa* assisted the people of Sardinia in expelling the Saracens from the island in 1052, and the latter was divided into four provinces. *Genoa* increased in power and became the rival of Pisa. *Venice* continued to be ruled by a duke (Doge): it extended its dominions to the east of the Adriatic, and received the submission of a number of places there (distinguished in the map by a brown colouring), but afterwards lost them to Croatia [1].

LINA ECKENSTEIN.

[1] For the authorities for this map see the list of works cited at the end of the preface to Plate LXIV.

LXVI

ITALY, *c.* 1167—1250

LIBRARY OF THE BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY

LXVI

ITALY, *c.* 1167—1250

THE accompanying map illustrates the changes which attended the supremacy and the fall of the power of the Hohenstaufen dynasty. The whole of Italy, excepting the Patrimony of St. Peter, was for a great part of the period in the possession and under the administration of the Emperor. In the north are shown the geographical limits of the territories which the cities eventually acquired. These territories on the whole corresponded to the limits of the bishoprics, and in many cases they overlapped the districts over which the feudal nobles continued to hold sway.

The leagues of the northern cities against the Emperor form a remarkable feature of the period. Those which joined the Lombard league of 1167 are here underlined in yellow. This league attained its greatest power in 1174, when it forced some of the great feudal princes to join it. Among these were the marquis of Montferrat, whose seat was at Mombello, and the count of Biandrate. The feudal system maintained itself longest in the mountains of Piedmont, in western Lombardy, and in the districts bordering upon the Alps. A number of these princes bore the title of marquis and count, which probably dated from Lombard times, and which therefore does not designate their tenure under the Emperor. Turin was held at an earlier date by the marquis of Susa; in 1073 it passed by marriage to the house of Savoy, and with it the property held by the marquis of Saluzzo. The districts which were held by these nobles have been worked out to some extent by Menke. They include the possessions of the marquis of Tenda near Asti, of the marquis of Vasto near Albi, of the marquis of Bosco near Acqui (*c.* 1116–1191), of the marquis of Gavi (1172), of the marquis of Carreto (1167), and of the Malaspina, who in 1164 shared the march of Genoa with the Este. The collapse of the feudal power of these nobles and the struggle between Emperor and Pope accelerated the development of the independence of the cities. The battle of Legnano in 1176 proved their strength, and in 1183 the cities secured the right of electing their own consuls, whose office in many cases superseded that of the *podestà*. After the destruction of the Lombard league the feudal princes generally, together with Genoa and the coast lands further west, declared for the Emperor. Some of the nobles accepted office under the Emperor, others developed their influence in a new direction by securing the post of *podestà*. It was a condition of the peace that the cities should give up the part of the *Terra Matildis* which they had appropriated. Thus Cremona gave up Luzzara and Guastalla in 1177; Lucca, while retaining certain rights, gave up the Garfagnana, Versiglia, and other districts; and between 1185 and 1197 the Emperor's authority was maintained throughout the *Terra Matildis*.

In the south a personal union between the Norman kingdom and the Empire was brought about through the marriage of Constance, the heiress of Sicily, to Henry, afterwards the Emperor Henry VI, in 1184; but it needed an attack on Tancred, the illegitimate heir, to secure the kingdom. The Emperor entertained the plan of forming Italy into a hereditary monarchy, but signs of disruption were apparent before his death in 1197. This date marks a turning point in the history of the cities and in the position of the Pope. The Church then advanced territorial claims comprising, besides the Patrimony, all those provinces which lay south of the line indicated by the grant of Charles the Great (cf. Plate LXIV), excepting Romaniola, over which the Pope in 1177 had recognized the authority of the archbishop of Ravenna. Innocent III (1198–1216) represents the highest development of the Papacy, and under him the Church at once began to recover its position. The justice of the territorial claims was not disputed, and the Pope gained a firm hold on Spoleto and Ancona, and his success would have been complete had not the cities in the north opposed his ascendency. Not the less did they resist the rights of the Emperor. Already in 1196 the cities of Tuscany combined in a league to throw off the Imperial authority. The overbearing of Florence led to many struggles between the cities over their territorial possessions and led to the clearer definition of their boundaries. Thus after a dispute between Pistoja and Bologna in 1212 for the possession of Sambuco, Pistoja secured it; Lucca and Pisa in 1249 went to war over the Garfagnana and Versiglia. The cities of Lucca, Siena, and Florence gradually rose to pre-eminence in Tuscany.

In the north Asti seized Annone; Bologna took Monteveglio, Medicina, and Argelate; Modena appropriated part of the Frignano; Reggio seized Canossa; Borgo S. Donnino freed itself from Piacenza; Alessandria threw off the yoke

ITALY

C. 1167 – 1250

English Miles

20 10 0 20 40 60

Explanation

Papal territory

Imperial "

Cities of the Lombard league 1167 underlined in Yellow

" " " Tuscan " 1196 " " Brown

Longitude East of Greenwich

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of the Montferrats. The independent attitude of the cities remained a standing trouble to the Emperor.

The system of administration resorted to first by the Pope and then by the Emperor during the thirteenth century was to entrust large districts (*provincia* or *regio*) to certain nobles, a policy which led to the rise or revival of many of the great families. Thus the Pope in 1208 bestowed Ancona and Ferrara on Azzo of Este; while the Emperor Otto IV, disregarding the renewed strength of the Church, in 1209 appointed Wolfger of Aquileia legate of Italy. In 1210 he nominated Azzo of Este marquis of Ancona, with its twelve counties; and in 1211 he appointed the marquis of Saluzzo legate of Lombardy and Piedmont.

Frederick II (1212–1250) began by recognizing the acquisitions regained by the Church, but after strife broke out between him and Gregory IX, and he had incurred excommunication in 1227 and again in 1239, he appointed vicars throughout the whole of Italy. In many cases these were relatives of the Emperor or Italians who were allied to him by marriage or otherwise, but within the Patrimony the temporal authority of the Pope was respected. The land held by the Pope in 1221 was described as extending from Cepranum to Radicofanum. But this was now fully ceded to him, and within its limits no Imperial authority remained. The Pope's right to temporal as well as to spiritual supremacy was vindicated, and this was made by him the basis of subsequent attempts to extend his power.

The kingdom of *Sicily* was administered with a firm hand by the Hohenstaufen. *Sardinia* was claimed by the Pope, but in 1238 the Emperor tried to attach it more directly to himself. The island had been ruled by princes in different provinces; Frederick married his natural son Enzo to the heiress of Torres and Gallura and declared him king of the island, but he did not succeed in subduing it.

In the south of Italy the county of *Molise* developed into a powerful principality. The north-east frontier during the thirteenth century fluctuated. In the march of *Treviso* Ezzelino of Romano rose to power and made war on Venice and on the Este. The counts of *Gorizia* (*Gorze*) encroached on the possessions of the bishop of Trent and of the patriarch of Aquileia. *Venice* was rapidly rising in importance. It extended its possessions on the mainland. In 1202 *Zara* was captured for a second time, and the Doge in 1204 took the title of Duke of Dalmatia. The possessions of Venice are coloured and underlined brown [1].

L. ECKENSTEIN.

[1] For the authorities for this map see note appended to the preface to Plate LXIV.

LXVII

NORTHERN ITALY IN THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES

LXVII

NORTHERN ITALY IN THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES

A. The Possessions of the Visconti in the fourteenth century.

THE property of AZZO VISCONTI (1329–1339) is coloured *yellow*; but that which was afterwards lost has only a *yellow border*. The additions made by LUCHINO and GIOVANNI VISCONTI (1339–1354) are coloured *violet*, the portions subsequently lost being distinguished by a *violet border*; while an *olive-green border* marks those which became the dowry of Valentina Visconti (1368). The additions made by BERNABÒ and GALEAZZO VISCONTI (1354–1385) are coloured *brown*; those afterwards lost have a *brown border*, and those which became the dowry of Violante Visconti (1387) are *yellow*. The additions made by GIAN GALEAZZO VISCONTI (1385–1402) are *green*, those which he lost during his lifetime having a *green border*.

1. The chief geographical development in Italy during the fourteenth century was that of the Visconti family of Milan. They rose on the ruin of other families—Torriani, Beccaria, Scaligeri, and others of less importance. A break in their prosperity was made by the expedition of the Emperor LEWIS IV into Italy in 1329, who restored their rivals, the Torriani, to the leadership in Milan; but after the recovery of Milan by Azzo Visconti in the same year their authority was rapidly extended over Central Lombardy, and, more gradually, over the greater part of the whole province. Azzo (1329–1339) recovered a great part of what his ancestors had already held; his western boundary was the Ticino, and beyond the Ticino he held the Lomellin district of Pavia, and, still further west, a great part of the Vercellese. Southwards he passed the Po into the Pavian Oltrepo, and held also Piacenza, part of the Pelavicini fiefs between Piacenza and Parma, Borgo S. Donnino in the Parmesan, and, beyond the Apennines, Pontremoli, which commanded the mountain pass into the Lunigiana and Tuscany. Westwards he held the Cremonese, Brescia, and the greater part of the Brescian territory, though its eastern district, including Asola, was ceded by him to the Gonzaga of Mantua, and the Riviera of Lake Garda remained for a time independent. Northwards he held Como, the Rusconi family, to which it had belonged, retreating to Locarno and Bellinzona.

2. Azzo's successors, Luchino (1339–1349) and Archbishop Giovanni (1349–1354), went on adding to this nucleus. The Rusconi were obliged to submit Locarno and Bellinzona to Luchino (1342); to the west most of the Novarase (1352), and that part of the Vercellese depending directly on Biella (1351), were added. South-west, Bobbio (1346), Tortona and Alessandria, Asti, Alba, Brà, Cherasco, Cuneo, and Mondovi (1347) were added, so that a large part of Piedmont was now under them; and in 1353 Genoa followed. Parma and its district were taken from the Estes (1346), Guastalla and Gualtieri on the Po from the Correggeschi (1346), and Bologna came under the rule of Archbishop Giovanni (1350). Further north the Brescian border was pushed eastwards at the expense of the Gonzaga (1348), and the Riviera of Lake Garda submitted (1351). Archbishop Giovanni, however, lost this further conquest from the Gonzaga (1353), and also part of that which had been made by Azzo, so that the border at his death almost coincided with the River Chiese.

3. The death of Giovanni and the division of his dominions amongst his nephews caused the loss of several outlying conquests. Bologna was held independently of the rest by Giovanni d'Oleggio Visconti until 1360, and then lost to Cardinal Albornoz. Pavia revolted in 1356, and was recovered only after a fierce struggle in 1359. Novara was also lost in 1356, though it was recovered two years later; and in 1381 the northern part of the province, the Val d'Ossola, leading to the Simplon Pass, was added. Asti and Alba were lost to Montferrat in 1356, but Asti was recovered in 1379. Further south, Brà, Cherasco, Cuneo, and Mondovi remained to Galeazzo Visconti until 1368, when they were given by him to Lionel, Duke of Clarence, as the dowry of his daughter, Valentina Visconti. Clarence died immediately afterwards; the towns were seized by Montferrat, and only Cherasco and Mondovi were recovered by Visconti. At the expense of Montferrat, however, Galeazzo took Valenza, Bassignana, and the Montferrat capital, Casale S. Evasio (1370). But in 1379 Biella and most of its territory, with two Vercellese towns, Santhià and Germano, revolted from Visconti and gave themselves to Savoy. During this period the Visconti advanced south-eastwards at the expense of the Gonzaga, taking the greater part of Reggio from them (1371), though Bagnolo and Novellara remained to the Gonzaga, and the eastern part of the Reggian territory to the Estes. The Correggeschi family were completely subjected to the Visconti in 1371. Sabbionetta near the Cremonese border was also taken from the Gonzaga (1361), and Asola, Lonato, Montechiaro, and other places in the Brescian were recovered (1366). Still further north the upper Valtellin was added, Poschiavo being taken in 1360, and Bormio in 1376, from the Bishop of Chur.

4. But it was after the consolidation of the family property in the hands of Gian Galeazzo that the final great advance

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of the Visconti was made. In the south-west he was not fortunate. Early in his rule he sacrificed Asti, Cherasco, and Ceva (the latter had only just been secured) as the dowry of his daughter Violante, on her marriage with Louis of Orleans. Mondovi he lost to Montferrat (1388), and his attempts on Genoa only resulted in the conquest of Novi and Serravalle upon its borders (1390), while most of Val d'Orba he bought from Montferrat in 1400. But it was eastwards, at the expense of the Scaligeri and Carraresi, that he made his great advance. Verona, Riva (on the north shore of Lake Garda), Vicenza, Bassano, Feltre, and Belluno were all conquered in 1387–1388; Padua, which was also conquered in 1388, was lost again two years later. From the Gonzaga he obtained Casalmaggiore on the Po (1390); further west he began to absorb the Malaspina property in the Lunigiana, and then he forced several of the central Italian towns to place themselves under his protection. Siena, Pisa, Perugia, and Bologna were all practically subject to him, when his unexpected death in 1402 was followed immediately by the temporary break-up of almost all his dominions.

B. The Lands of Venice in the fifteenth century.

The Venetian territory possessed by the year 1400 is coloured *green*; that which the republic then held, but afterwards lost, has a *green border*. Additions made by 1405 are *pink*; those made in 1405 and lost in 1411 have a *pink border*. Additions made between 1411–1422 are in *violet*; those made in that period, but afterwards lost, have a *violet border*. Additions made between 1422–1430 are coloured *yellow*. Additions made between 1430–1454 are in *olive-green*; those made in that period, but lost before 1454, have an *olive-green border*. Additions made between 1454–1500 are coloured *brown*.

1. The development of Venice in the fifteenth century fills a place similar to, if not so large as, that of the Visconti in the fourteenth. Venice had indeed held Treviso and a large part of the Trevisan March (with but a short break) since 1339; but it was the temporary abeyance into which the power of the Visconti fell between 1402–1414 which gave her her opportunity. The Scaligeri and Carraresi could be crushed in detail, and by 1405 Padua, Verona, Vicenza, Bassano, Feltre, and Belluno had been secured, so that her western boundary was now the Mantuan territory and Lake Garda. To the north-east lay the dominions of the Patriarch of Aquileja, from whom Venice had already taken Sacile (1385). To the south her territory just reached the Po, since the Polesina of Rovigo had been pledged to her by the Estes as security for debt ever since 1405.

2. Between 1411–1420 Venice was principally occupied in a struggle to wrest Friuli from the Patriarch of Aquileja, who was supported by the Hungarians under SIGISMUND. In 1411 she lost, to Hungary, Feltre, Belluno, and Sacile; and Serravalle in the Trevisan. In 1418 these places were recovered, and Roveredo was taken from Trent; by 1420 the whole of Friuli was in the hands of Venice, except Pordenone, which was and remained an Austrian fortress. The Counts of Görz did homage to Venice for such of their property as lay within the Friulian borders, and even for parts outside (Gradisca, Montefalcone, &c.). Finally, in 1445, after many years' dispute, the Patriarch was allowed to hold the towns of Aquileja, S. Vito, and S. Daniele in full sovereignty, the rest of Friuli being confirmed to Venice. The struggle with the Patriarch had also been going on in Istria, part of which belonged to him under the title of Marquis of Istria. The towns on the west coast, all but Muggia, had been taken from him by Venice before 1365; the rest of his Istrian property was added by 1420. Further south, Venice had passed through long wars for the possession of Dalmatia and the neighbouring islands. LADISLAS of Hungary sold his Dalmatian rights to her in 1409, and by 1433 she held both mainland and islands, with the exception of that of Veglia, which did not fall wholly into her hands until 1475.

3. Meanwhile, the rise of FILIPPO MARIA VISCONTI to power in Milan and Central Lombardy recalled the energies of Venice to struggles in Italy. The result of repeated wars was that Venice gained Brescia in 1426, and Bergamo in 1428. From 1412 she held Casalmaggiore and Brescello as a kind of outpost upon the Po, but these were finally lost in 1437, and in 1438 the alliance of the Estes was secured by the surrender of the Polesina of Rovigo to them. Various attempts were made by her on Cremona and Crema during this period, but the only conquest of any duration was that of Soncino (1431–1438).

4. In 1438 the position of Venice was made very difficult by an alliance of the Gonzaga with Visconti, which had the effect of cutting off Brescia and Bergamo from her main territory; and the Venetian victory of 1440 was made profitable by the addition of Peschiera and Lonato (with other Gonzaga towns), and of Riva (from Trent), which secured passages both north and south of Lake Garda for communication between Venice and Brescia. At the same time Venice gained a foothold in the Romagna by changing her protectorate of Ravenna into absolute sovereignty (1441). The death of Filippo Maria Visconti brought fresh opportunities to Venice, but the final result of the war with his successor, FRANCESCO SFORZA, was only the acquisition of Crema by Venice at the Peace of Lodi (1454).

5. The attention of Venice was mainly distracted henceforward by wars with the Turks, but in 1484 a war with the Marquis of Ferrara enabled her to secure the Polesina and a few Ferrarese places.

On the break-up of the Sforzesco Duchy of Milan, Venice obtained from the spoils Cremona and the Ghiara d'Adda (1499), a strip of territory east of the Adda, belonging to the territories partly of Milan and partly of Lodi, and which had constantly been occupied and lost again during the Milanese-Venetian wars. This was the position of Venice at the end of the century, and it was the possession of these large provinces which excited the cupidity of the members of the League of Cambrai.

K. DOROTHEA EWART.

LXVIII

ITALY AFTER THE PEACE OF LODI (1454)

LXVIII

ITALY AFTER THE PEACE OF LODI (1454)

A. Italy after the Peace of Lodi. The date of 1454 is a central one in the geographical history of Italy. It represents a comparative crystallization (under the outside pressure of a threatened Turkish invasion) of the various districts which had been for centuries in a continually shifting and changing condition, and for the next forty years the changes were slight and comparatively unimportant. In north-west Italy Savoy had extended its authority over Nice and almost all Piedmont; Montferrat, Saluzzo, and the Counts of Tenda did homage, as did also those of Monaco, for part of their possessions; only the lords of Ventimiglia were independent, and Asti was held by the Orleans family. North of the Po, Savoy also held the Canavese, the Val d'Aosta, and the Vercellese (finally renounced by Visconti in 1426). The Duchy of Milan, dismembered by the death of Filippo Maria Visconti, had been reunited by Francesco Sforza. Besides Milan, he held on the north of the Po the towns and territories of Novara, Lodi, Como, and Cremona; with the Val d'Ossola, Val Leventina, and Valtellina. South of the Po he possessed Alessandria, Tortona, Bobbio, Piacenza, and Parma; and south of the Apennines Pontremoli. Venice, to the north-east, was almost at the height of her power. She held the Friuli, Treviso, Feltre, Belluno, Vicenza, Padua, Verona, Bergamo, Brescia, and Crema (obtained at the Peace of Lodi), and, in Romagna, Ravenna. The Gonzaga, though cut off from Lake Garda by Venice, still held Mantua, with most of the course of the Mincio, and also a considerable territory south of the Po. The Estes held the Polesina of Rovigo; in Emilia they possessed Modena and Reggio; in Romagna they held Ferrara as a Papal Vicariate. In the Emilia also was a small group of minor states, all held by Imperial feudatories—the Pichi of Mirandola, the Pii of Carpi, the Torelli of Guastalla, the Correggeschi of Correggio, and a cadet branch of the Gonzaga at Novellara.

The Papal States in Romagna were under various Vicars, more or less independent. The Manfredi held Imola and Faenza; the Ordelaffi Forli and Forlimpopoli; the Malatesta Rimini, Cesena, and Fano; a cadet branch of the Sforza Pesaro, the Montefeltro Urbino, and Gubbio in Umbria. Bologna in the Emilia was practically independent under the Bentivogli, and Perugia in Umbria under the Baglioni. The rest of the Papal states—the Marches, Umbria, the Sabina, Patrimonio, and Campania—were more or less subject to the Pope; though many of the communes and great feudal lords were comparatively independent. Naples and Sicily were held by the House of Aragon, as was also Sardinia. In Tuscany the chief power was divided between Florence and Siena, but the district of the former was larger and far more powerful by virtue of the possession of such important towns as Pisa, Volterra, Arezzo, and Pistoja. The lords of Piombino were in a measure independent, but were 'raccomodati' to, that is to say, under the protection of, Florence. Lucca retained a small independent territory, curtailed on the south by Florence, and on the north by the Estes, who had taken the Garfagnana. In the Lunigiana the Malaspina family still held some independent fiefs, including Massa; but many were 'raccomodati' to Florence. Carrara belonged to the Fregosi family. Genoa was at the time independent, though in 1458 it gave itself to France. Its territory spread southwards, to include Sarzana; and its great bank of S. George held the Island of Corsica in sovereignty.

B. The Growth of the Florentine State, 1300–1500. In this map the boundaries of the Tuscan States in 1300 are distinguished by *scarlet borders*, while portions of these states lost before their absorption by Florence, or before 1500, are indicated by *black dotted lines*. The Florentine State in 1300 is coloured *pink*. Additions to it made before 1377 are in *brown*; but such of these as were lost again before 1377 have only a *brown border*. Additions made before 1433 are coloured *yellow*; those made before 1494, *green*. Territory 'raccomodato' to Florence, but never under complete subjection, is coloured *violet*; while territory 'raccomodato' to Florence, and lost again before 1500, has only a *violet border*.

1. Florence was already in 1300 the most important commune in Tuscany. She held the middle Val d'Arno, the valleys of the Greve and Pesa, and parts of Val Bisenzio and Val di Sieve. To the north of Florence, commanding the Apennine passes towards Emilia, were the dominions of the Alberti family of Mangona and Vernio, and of the Ubaldini, whose head-quarters were at Pietramala. To the north-east lay the property of the Guidi of Modigliana, who held the Apennine passes towards northern Romagna. With these Guidi and Ubaldini Florence had already come into contact in the upper Val di Sieve (or Mugello), and she had built the fortress of Borgo S. Lorenzo to keep them in check. Further south were the kindred Guidi of Poppi or Battefolle, who held part of the upper Val d'Arno (or Casentino) and the hills between it and the Mugello. The southern part of the Casentino was principally occupied by the Ubertini, with whom Florence had already come into contact, and to check whom she had built S. Giovanni. Southwards lay the territory of Arezzo, in which, especially in the Tiber valley and the hills on either side of it, the Tarlati family were very powerful. South again were the small districts of Cortona and Montepulciano, close to which lay the larger territory of Siena, directly south of Florence. Surrounding Siena were the powerful families of the Berardenga, Aldobrandeschi, and Pannochieschi, which, during this same period, she was occupied in suppressing and

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absorbing. The territory of Volterra included most of the Cecina and Cornia valleys; between it and the sea was the property of the Gherardesca family, more or less dependent on Pisa during the fourteenth century. The Pisan territory included the lower Val d'Arno and the valleys of the Fine, Toro, and Era. Between Pisa and Florence were the small states of S. Mineato al Tedesco, S. Gimignano, and Colle, and north of the Arno was the territory of Pistoja, stretching northwards to the Apennines; between it and Florence was the little state of Prato in the Val di Bisenzio. Westwards was Lucca, which reached the sea coast, and included the valleys of the Nievole, Serchio, and Lima, and the Garfagnana district. The coast fortresses of Sarzana and Sarzanello passed between Genoa, Lucca, and the Visconti. Further inland the fiefs of the Malaspina family occupied the Lunigiana as far as Pontremoli, which usually belonged to Milan.

2. A number of the Apennine lords were already under Florentine protection, 'raccomodati,' by the end of the thirteenth century; in the fourteenth, Florence converted these 'raccomodaje' into complete sovereignty. By 1377 the Alberti dominions were almost completely absorbed; the building of Fiorenzuola and Scarperia by Florence led to the absorption of all the Ubaldini territories but Pietramala and its district; a great part of the Mugello was taken from the two Guidi families; the Guidi of Poppi also lost a great part of the Casentino, including Castel S. Niccolo; and the Ubertini were pushed southwards up the Arno valley. In 1337 Arezzo and a large part of its territory were subject to Florence, but all this was lost, except the Val d'Ambra, at the time of the overthrow of the power of the Duke of Athens in Florence. From 1347 S. Miniato was more or less under Florence; its complete subjection took place in 1370. S. Gimignano and Colle were acquired in 1351; Staggia was bought from Siena in 1361; the subjugation of Volterra and its territory began in this same year; Prato was bought from Queen Joanna of Naples in 1350. Pistoja, after a chequered existence under Florence and Lucca, Neapolitan Vicars, and Castruccio Castracani, fell to Florence permanently in 1329. Lucca lost the Val di Nievole and parts of the Val d'Arno to Florence during this period, and a temporary occupation of the Garfagnana by Florence left her with Barga as a permanent possession.

3. During the Albizzi rule in Florence (1378–1433) still further advances were made. Pietramala was taken from the Ubaldini; nearly all the property of the Guidi of Modigliana, and all that of the Calboli family at Rocca S. Casciano, was absorbed; Florence thus acquiring a permanent foothold in Romagna. The Ubertini of the Casentino were entirely subjected; Arezzo was recovered in 1384, but the Apennine district beyond the Tiber in its territory was still retained by the Tarlati, though under the 'raccomodaja' of Florence. Montepulciano was acquired, in spite of strong Sienese opposition, in 1390; Cortona was bought from Ladislas of Naples in 1411; but the most important acquisition was that of Pisa and its territory, after a long struggle, in 1406. The Gherardesca family then transferred themselves from the protection of Pisa to that of Florence, but this 'raccomodaja' was never converted into complete sovereignty. The State of Piombino, formed by the Appiani in 1398, was also placed under the 'raccomodaja' of Florence in 1406, and remained faithful to it throughout the greater part of the century. A process of 'raccomodaja' was also going on amongst the Malaspina towards Florence (1404–1428), but the conquest of that district by Piccinino put an end to this for some time. The Fieschi of Pontremoli were even 'raccomodati' to Florence for a short period.

4. The increase made under the rule of the Medici (1433–1494) was comparatively small. Modigliana and its district were finally acquired from the Guidi; the Gambacorti, who, as a reward for their services in the subjugation of Pisa, had held Bagno di Romagna since 1406, now forfeited it for their treacherous dealings with Alfonso of Naples; the alliance of the Guidi of Poppi with the invading forces of Piccinino was followed by their complete fall (1441). The last remaining castles of the Tarlati fell to Florence after the battle of Anghiari, and Eugenius IV sold Borgo S. Sepolcro to the city at the same date (1441). The attempt to conquer Lucca was a failure, and resulted in the acquisition only of Montecarlo and Motrone (1438). The latter had been pledged to Genoa since 1430, together with Pietrasanta and Seravezza. These two remained to Genoa until 1484, when they were conquered by Florence. In 1468 Sarzana and Sarzanello had been sold to Florence by the Campo-Fregosi family of Genoa. Lucca also lost the Garfagnana to the Estes during this period, though Barga remained to Florence. Massa was likewise lost by Lucca to the Malaspina. Florence gradually obtained the renewal of the 'raccomodaja' of a great part of the Malaspina property, which was mostly converted into absolute sovereignty before the end of the period. This was the position of Florence when the invasion of Charles VIII (1494) broke her power and contracted her dominions within narrower limits.

C. The Papal States after the end of the great Schism, c. 1430. In this map *scarlet borders* indicate the districts held by Communes; but when enclosing a cross (+) they denote the property of the greater monasteries. Other borders mark Papal Vicariates. The Malatesta of Rimini have a *pink border*; the Malatesta of Pesaro, a *green border*; Montefeltro of Urbino, a *brown border*; Varano of Camerino, a *yellow border*; Polenta of Ravenna and Trinci of Foligno, a *violet border*; Ordelaffi of Forli, an *olive green border*; Manfredi of Faenza and Atti of Sassoferrato, an *orange border*; Alidosi of Imola and Chiavelli of Fabriano, a *blue border*.

Body colours show the territories of great feudal lords. Those of the Colonna are *brown*; Orsini, *pink*; Savelli, *violet*; Vico, *olive green*; Anguillara, *orange*; Gaetani, *green*; Conti, *yellow*. The smaller families—Farnese, Vitelleschi, Monaldeschi of Orvieto—are coloured *blue*.

The authority of the Church in the Papal States had been much weakened by the long absence of the Popes at Avignon, and by the great Schism. On the return of Martin V to Rome he found a very small part of the Papal States in direct dependence upon the Church.

1. In the Marches and Romagna the families of 'tyrants' were all-powerful, and had extended their rule from town to town, and over the neighbouring country districts. Many of them had been acknowledged by earlier Popes as Vicars or Governors of these districts, and Martin V, in return for nominal submission, confirmed and sometimes extended these Vicariates. The chief of the Romagnol families were the Malatesta, divided into two branches, Malatesta of Rimini and of Pesaro. The former held, besides Rimini, Cesena, and Cervia, large districts on the north slope of the Apennines. In the Marches they held Fano, Sinigaglia, and

Fossombrone; but the two latter towns were taken from them by Martin V, and given to the Malatesta of Pesaro, who were related by marriage with Martin's own family, the Colonna. The chief town of the Montefeltro family was Urbino: they extended their rule over the surrounding Romagnol districts, and southwards into the Marches; and their constant ambition was to absorb the inland hill-property of the Malatesta of Rimini, and to push out seawards over the property of the Malatesta of Pesaro. They had also crossed the mountains into Umbria and held Gubbio. Further north in Romagna, Forli and Forlimpopoli were ruled by the Ordelaffi, Faenza by the Manfredi, Imola by the Alidosi, and Ravenna by the Polenta, all acknowledged as Papal Vicars by Martin V. The largest Vicariate in the southern Marches was that of the Varano, whose headquarters were Camerino, Tolentino, and Amandola, and who also spread over the mountains and subjected the Umbrian town of Visso to their authority. In the other Marches there was a large number of small communes. Chief amongst them was Ancona, which had a considerable territory of its own; but Jesi, Osimo, Recanati, Cingoli, S. Maria, S. Severino, Macerata, Fermo, Offida, Montalto, Ripatransone, Arsoli, Arquata, and others, were all more or less independent. Some remnants of territory fell directly under the Popes, but Sassoferrato was a Vicariate in the hands of the Atti family, and Fabriano in those of the Chiavelli.

2. In Umbria it was chiefly the large communes which ruled the country districts. They were nominally subject to the Pope, who from time to time appointed their superior officials, but practically they had a large measure of independence. By far the most important was Perugia, which exercised something of an hegemony over the smaller Umbrian towns, protecting them from the attacks of the Trinci of Foligno, since their independence secured its own. Perugia was still nominally a commune, though practically the Baglioni were establishing a tyranny over it, similar to that of the Medici in Florence. The Trinci of Foligno held a Papal Vicariate over that place; but, in spite of their efforts, the smaller communes, Trevi, Nocera, and Montefalco, remained independent. Assisi, Todi, Spoleto, Borgo S. Sepolcro, Città di Castello, were communes of more importance; while the Papal authority was exercised more directly over the country surrounding Spello and Gualdo. Part of the district of Spoleto was in the hands of the powerful Monastery of Ferentillo.

3. In the Campania Maritima and the Patrimonio the great feudal families had absorbed most of the country districts and smaller towns, and their territories had grown immensely during the Schism. Martin V used the Colonna, his own family, as a check to the rest, and was able to reduce the turbulent nobility to comparative order; but they still retained their local authority. The Colonna were able not only to consolidate the dominions they already possessed, but also to extend them at the expense of the Orsini. They held most of the south-eastern Campania, including the valley of the Liri and the country round L. Fucino, the valley of the Sacco, the fortresses on the north slope of the Alban hills, and the strong castles of Colonna, Palestrina, Zagarolo, &c. Thus they held almost the whole of the Via Latina, the main route from Rome to Naples. They also commanded the coast route southwards by virtue of their property about Ardea and Nettuno. In the Patrimonio they held a large district on the right bank of the Tiber not far north of Rome, the town and district of Nepi, and also land between the communes of Orte and Viterbo. But more powerful in this neighbourhood were the rival family of Orsini, who held most of the left bank of the Tiber from Rome to Otricoli, and, spreading thence westwards, reached the valley of the Turano, by which they could communicate with their Neapolitan possessions, where they came into direct contact with the Colonna near Lake Fucino, as they did in the valley of the Tiber. They also held the district directly north of Rome, including Galera, and another branch of the family were established in the Sienese territory at Pitigliano and Sovana. One of the most active lords of the time of Martin V was the Prefect of Vico, whose property on either side of Lake Vico commanded the main route between Rome and Viterbo, with which latter commune he was constantly at war. He was very powerful also towards the sea, holding Civita Vecchia, one of the few ports on this part of the coast. Opposed to him was the Bracciani family of Anguillara, whose property, south of the Vico, lay mainly about Lake Bracciano, and spread westwards, to come again into contact with the Vico near the sea-coast. The Savelli held property both in the Campania and Sabine districts; in the Campania they were strongly posted on the Alban hills, thus holding part of the Via Appia; further north they commanded, from their property near Vicovaro, the valley of the Aniene, and they also held the Sabine highlands between Rieti and Otricoli. Very powerful in the Campania were the Gaetani, who held the central mountain districts and from thence had spread westwards over the Pontine Marshes and down the sea-coast to Terracina. Across the upper valley of the Sacco, cutting off the Colonna of Palestrina from those of the southern Campania, lay a district ruled by the Conti, who were also powerful on the Sienese border, between the sea and Lake Bolsena. Other smaller families of the Patrimonio were the Farnesi, neighbours of Toscanella, Corneto, and the Conti, at whose expense they were later on to grow considerably; the Vitelleschi near the Sienese border; and the Monaldeschi near Orvieto, over which commune they were gradually extending their authority. In the Patrimonio and Sabine districts there were also several powerful communes, Orvieto, Viterbo, and Rieti being the largest; Città della Pieve, Acquapendente, S. Lorenzo, Montefiascone, Toscanella, Corneto, Narni, Terni, Orte, and Sutri being likewise independent. The city of Rome itself ruled over a considerable district, and in the Campania were a few small communes, Velletri, Anagni, Alatri, Ferentino, and Terracina. The Monasteries of Farfa in the Sabine district and Subiaco in the Campania were still territorially very powerful.

K. DOROTHEA EWART.

LXIX

ITALIA SACRA

ILLUSTRATING THE ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS IN THE MIDDLE AGES

ITALY
in its ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS from the 12th to the 15th Centuries

English Miles
20 10 0 20 40 60

Explanation
Archbishoprics — Bishoprics
Suppressed Archbishoprics — Suppressed Bishoprics
Monasteries

THE ROMAN SUBURBICARIAN BISHOPRICS

Explanation
Bishoprics
Suppressed Bishoprics
Monasteries

The City of ROME

Explanation
Seven Greater Basilicas
Titular Churches of Cardinal Priests
" " " " Deacons
Greater Monasteries

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

The Saracenic conquest made a complete breach in the ecclesiastical history of the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. The former was rearranged by the Normans in the four provinces of *Catania*, *Syracuse*, *Messina*, and *Palermo*. The first of these was soon subordinated to the second; and then the combined province was placed under the rule of the new archbishopric of *Monreale* in the immediate neighbourhood of Palermo. Sardinia, which was recovered from the Saracens in 1052, was divided into the three provinces of *Turris* (*Porto Torres*), *Oristanum* (*Oristano*), and *Calaris* (*Cagliari*), while the north-east and most of the east coast was attached to the province of Pisa, the Pisans having taken an active share in the reconquest of the island.

Returning to the Italian peninsula, we find no less than nineteen provinces in the land to the south-eastward of the old Lombard kingdom. In the remaining two-thirds of the country we have at present discovered no more than five, *Rome*, *Milan*, *Ravenna*, *Aquileia*, and *Grado*. The increase in the number of the northern provinces was very gradual, and, otherwise than in the south, was determined by the political importance of the cities which were made the metropoles of new provinces. First *Pisa* (1092) and then *Genoa* (1133) were detached from Rome and Milan: the two divided also the spiritual jurisdiction of the island of Corsica, which Rome had been unable to maintain, and Pisa had (as has been stated) a share in that of Sardinia. *Florence* did not become an archbishopric until 1420, nor *Siena* until 1459: both were taken out of the Roman province. It has already been noticed that *Venice* was, in 1451, advanced to a Patriarchate by the sacrifice of Grado. Thus the total number of provinces in Northern Italy at the end of the Middle Ages was raised to nine[1].

2. The upper of the two small maps on the accompanying plate illustrates the changes in the dioceses in the immediate vicinity of Rome, the number of which in the earlier Middle Ages was very great. Those forming the *Suburbicarian Bishoprics* in the narrower sense of the word are indicated by scarlet border lines. Of the rest those sees which are surrounded by the same coloured borders were in course of time united; those separated are divided by a dark blue line. The twelfth century saw a process of gradual absorption and extinction amongst them. The dioceses of Caere and Silva Candida were absorbed into that of Portus, Setia was united to Terracina, Galesiae to Falaria, Velitrae to Ostia, while the see of Tuscania was transferred to Viterbium. In 1435 a similar process of absorption took place: Nepe was united to Sutrium, Horta to Castellum, to which the see of Falaria had meanwhile been moved. Mons Flasconis, which since 1369 had been cut off from the diocese of Balneum Regis, was also united to Cornetum, which at the same date was divided off from Viterbium and made a separate diocese.

3. The plan of Rome shows the division into fourteen administrative *regions*, viz.:—

I. Campitellum.	VIII. Transtiberis.
II. Montium.	IX. Ripa.
III. Trivium.	X. S. Angeli.
IV. Columna.	XI. Arenula.
V. Campus Martius.	XII. Parionis.
VI. Pontis.	XIII. S. Eustachii.
VII. Burgus.	XIV. Pinia.

The seven principal churches of Rome, called the seven greater Basilicas, were those which the pilgrims visited in turn. Four of them, S. Johannes in Laterano, S. Petrus in Vaticano, S^{a} Maria Major, and S^{a} Crux in Hierusalem, were within the walls of the city; the other three, S. Laurentius, S. Sebastianus, and S. Paulus, were without.

The following churches were those from which the Cardinal Priests selected their titles:—

S^{a} Anastasia.
Basilica SS. XII Apostolorum.
S^{a} Balbina.
S^{a} Cecilia.
S. Chrysogonus.
S. Clemens.
S^{a} Crux in Hierusalem (one of the seven Basilicas).
S. Cyriacus in Thermis.
S. Eusebius.
SS. Johannes et Paulus (titulo Pammachii).
S. Laurentius in Damaso.
S. Laurentius in Lucina.
S. Marcellus.
SS. Marcellinus et Petrus.
S. Marcus.
S^{a} Maria trans Tiberim (titulo Callisti).
SS. Nereus et Achilleus (titulo Fasciolae).
S. Petrus ad Vincula (titulo Eudoxiae).
S^{a} Praxedis.
S^{a} Prisca.
S^{a} Pudentiana (titulo Pastoris).
SS. Quatuor Coronati.
S^{a} Sabina.
S. Sixtus (Xystus) in Piscina.
S. Stephanus in Caelio Monte.
S^{a} Susanna.
SS. Sylvester et Martinus in Montibus (titulo Equitii).
S. Vitalis (titulo Vestinae).

The following churches were those which usually gave their titles to the Cardinal Deacons:—

S^{a} Agatha in Suburra.
S. Angelus in Foro Piscium.
SS. Cosmas et Damianus.
S. Eustachius.
S. Georgius in Velabro.
S. Hadrianus in Foro.
S^{a} Lucia in Septisolio.
S^{a} Lucia in Silice.
S^{a} Maria in Aquiro.
S^{a} Maria in Cosmedin (alias Schola Graeca).
S^{a} Maria in Dominica.
S^{a} Maria Nova.
S^{a} Maria in Porticu.
S^{a} Maria Transpontina.
S^{a} Maria in Via Lata.
S. Nicolaus in Carcere Tulliano.
SS. Sergius et Bacchus.
S. Theodorus.
SS. Vitus et Modestus in macello Martyrum.

Many of these titles both for Cardinal Priests and Cardinal Deacons were almost uniformly adopted, others only exceptionally; and from the latter part of the fifteenth century new titles make their appearance which are not included in the lists given above.

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[1] For the account given in the foregoing section I am indebted to the editor of this Atlas, who is alone responsible for it.

LXX

THE HOUSE OF SAVOY IN ITALY

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LXX

THE HOUSE OF SAVOY IN ITALY

A. The House of Savoy in Italy, 1418. The lands of the Dukes of Savoy are coloured *brown*; those of the Princes of Achaia, *yellow*; those of the Lords of Montferrat, *pink*; but those which Montferrat had lost before 1418 to Savoy and Achaia have only a *pink border-line*. The lands of the Visconti of Milan are coloured *green*; those which they had lost before 1418 to Savoy have a *green border-line*. The lands of the Marquesses of Saluzzo are in *olive green*; those which they had lost before 1418 to Savoy and Achaia having an *olive green border-line*. The territory lost before 1418 by the Counts of Provence to Savoy and Achaia has a *violet border-line*. The lands of the Lords of Ceva and the Counts of Tenda doing homage to Savoy in 1418 have an *orange border-line*. Those of the lords of the Canavese divided in 1418 between Savoy, Achaia, and Montferrat have a *blue border-line*.

The house of Savoy had secured a footing in *Piedmont* since the eleventh century, but it was not until the fourteenth that it made any great progress in subjugating neighbouring states. In 1285 its possessions were divided between two branches of the family:—the Counts of Savoy, who held all the *Transalpine provinces*, the *valley of Aosta* and that of *Susa* as far east as Rivoli; and the Princes of Achaia, who held *central Piedmont* and *Turin*, doing homage for them to the Counts. In 1418 the younger branch died out, and the whole property was united under the Counts, now Dukes, of Savoy. But considerable advances had been made during this century and a half.

1. The province of *Vercelli* was in the fourteenth century chiefly in the hands of the Visconti. In 1377, however, Biella revolted and gave itself to Savoy; its example was followed by several places near, and by S. Germano and Santhià, so that by 1418 Savoy held a large part of the Vercellese. *Masserano* and *Crevacuore* formed an independent principality under the Fieschi family.

2. The nearest neighbours to Achaia on the north-east were the family of Montferrat, who held both banks of the Po, with Casale as their capital town, and had spread over the greater part of the *Canavese province* and up the valley of the Stura almost to the Alps. The fourteenth century saw a continual struggle between Montferrat on one side, and Savoy and Achaia on the other, for this Canavese district, and its chief town, Ivrea; by 1418 Montferrat had been pushed back to the east of the river Orco, and Savoy and Achaia had divided the spoils. By this time also Montferrat was holding Acqui, Alba, Cortemiglia and a great part of the surrounding country, and was engaged in a struggle with Genoa over the fiefs of the Ponzone and Malaspina (Molare, &c.) families. The Lords of Carretto did homage for great parts of their fiefs to Genoa and Montferrat, but they still retained an independent district about Carretto and Millesimo.

3. Asti, Cherasco, and Brà had passed from hand to hand during this period, but in 1387 had been finally given by the Visconti to the French family of Orleans (see Plate LXVII). In 1372, however, Achaia had obtained from Asti the town of Poirino, and in 1388 Riva di Chieri, then held by the Visconti. The Lords of Ceva had also given up a great part of their fiefs to the Visconti, who had passed them over to Orleans (Ceva, Ormea, Garessio); but for part which they still retained (Boves, Peveragno) they did homage to Savoy from 1414 onwards.

4. The principal energies of Savoy and Achaia in the fourteenth century were, however, directed against their southern neighbours, the Marquesses of *Saluzzo*, although Saluzzo was frequently supported by the Kings of France, who, as Dauphins of Vienne, claimed homage from it; the contest went, on the whole, against the Marquesses, and the northern part of their property passed to Achaia (Pancalieri, Cavallermaggiore, Savigliano, &c.), while Saluzzo did homage to Achaia for Carmagnuola, Racconigi, and Revello. Within the Saluzzan province, Savoy held Costigliole and Caraglio (the latter taken from the Visconti), and homage was paid by Saluzzo to Savoy for Dronero and Busca. Diano and the Marquisate of Clavesana were held by Saluzzo, but Dogliani had passed through the hands of Montferrat to Achaia. Mondovi also, which had once belonged to Saluzzo, had been held by various masters, and had finally gone from Montferrat to Savoy (1396).

5. Cuneo had changed hands fifteen times in 170 years, and at last in 1382 had passed from the Counts of Provence to Savoy. The same counts also lost Chieri and its territory to Achaia in 1347; a little later Fossano and Sommariva, also to Achaia; and in 1388 the *county of Nizza* (Nice) to Savoy.

6. From 1406 Savoy obtained homage from the Counts of Ventimiglia for Limone and Briga in the *county of Tenda*, thus securing communication over the Alps between its Piedmontese and Ligurian possessions.

THE HOUSE OF SAVOY in ITALY 1418

Eng. Miles 0 5 10 20

Longitude East 8 of Greenwich

CAMPAIGNS of the QUADRILATERAL

English Miles 0 5 10

Longitude East 11 of Greenwich

CAMPAIGN of MAGENTA

Eng. Miles 0 5 10

Longitude East 9 of Greenwich

THE GROWTH OF THE HOUSE OF SAVOY in ITALY Between 1418 & 1748

Eng. Miles 0 10 20

Longitude East 8 of Greenwich

ITALY in 1859

Eng. Miles 0 50 100

Long. East 12 of Greenw.

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

B. The growth of the House of Savoy in Italy from 1418–1748. The possessions of Savoy from 1418 are coloured *pink*. Its successive acquisitions are distinguished as follows: (1) those obtained by 1435, *blue*; (2) by 1531, *brown*; (3) by 1601, *green*; (4) by 1631, *yellow*; (5) by 1714, *violet*; (6) by 1738, *orange*; (7) by 1748, *olive green*.

Districts paying homage to Savoy in each period are marked by a *border* of the distinctive colour.

1. Before 1418 Savoy possessed Biella, S. Germano, Santhià, &c. in the Vercellese; by a treaty in 1427 Visconti ceded the rest of the Vercellese as far east as the Sesia, but this did not include the extreme north of the valley (Borgo Sesia and Varallo). From 1431 Savoy obtained homage from the Fieschi of Crevacuore and Masserano; but the principality remained in the hands of that family until 1753. Montferrat was also pushed eastwards along the north bank of the Po, Savoy obtaining in 1435 Caluso, Chivasso, Crescentino, &c.

2. Further conquests were made at the expense of Montferrat, the *county of Cocconato* passing to Savoy in 1503. The Piedmontese territory which had passed from the house of Orleans into the French royal family (Asti, Cherasco, Brà, and part of Ceva, Garessio, and Ormea) had gone to the Emperor, who granted Asti, Cherasco, and Ceva to Beatrice of Portugal, wife of CHARLES III of Savoy (1531). Brà did not go to Savoy until 1552. From 1524 the Doria did homage to Savoy for Dolceacqua, Perinaldo, &c. in the Liguria, and from 1448 the Grimaldi of Monaco did homage for Mentone and Roccabruna.

3. In 1588 the whole *Marquisate of Saluzzo* was conquered from France, and was confirmed to Savoy by the Peace of Lyons (1601). In 1575 Savoy obtained the whole county of Tenda from the Counts of Ventimiglia, and, having thus secured their communications with their Ligurian possessions, bought Prela from the same counts, and Oneglia and Loano from the Doria family.

4. The property of Montferrat in Piedmont had, on the extinction of the direct line, passed to the Gonzaga of Mantua. Savoy disputed their succession, and by the Peace of Chieri (1631) obtained all their property north of the Po, and the greater part of that south of the Tanaro (Alba, Acqui, Nizza della Paglia, Cortemiglia, &c.).

5. The result of the French wars of 1690–1714, in which Savoy took the part of the allies against France, was to secure to it the rest of the Montferrat territories, which had been sold by Gonzaga to France (Casale, &c.); and to drive the French altogether out of Piedmont, where they had always kept a footing in the upper valleys of the Po and Varaita, and since 1631 had held Pinerolo, Perosa, and the upper valley of the Dora Ripaira. By the Treaty of Utrecht Savoy also obtained the upper Val di Sesia (Borgo Sesia, Varallo), the Alessandrian and the Lomellin district of Pavia. From the Emperor it received as fiefs Ponzone, Cassinelle, &c., being part of a district called the *Langhe*, lying about the Ligurian Alps.

6. By the Peace of Vienna (1738) the rest of the Imperial fiefs in the Langhe (Cairo, Millesimo, Ormea, Garessio) were given to Savoy, and also Tortona and Novara—that is to say, the lower Novarese, including Lake Orta, but not extending to Lago Maggiore.

7. By the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) Savoy obtained the upper Novarese, including the west shore of Lago Maggiore and the Val d'Ossola: Bobbio and its territory, and, out of the ancient territory of Pavia, the district lying south of the Po (Oltrepò) and the Vigevanesco, which had been promised in 1713, but never yielded. The reversion of Piacenza was also promised in 1748, but this Savoy never obtained.

Thus, when the French invaded Italy, the house of Savoy held the whole of *Piedmont*, the *county of Nizza*, and *western Lombardy* as far as Lago Maggiore, the River Ticino, and (almost) the river Trebbia.

C. Italy in 1859. Part of the work of the Congress of Vienna was to decide by whom Italy should be ruled. The decision was made, with a view to the future stability of Europe, that Austria should be the preponderating power in the peninsula. The *Duchy of Lombardy-Venice* was placed directly under Austrian rule, and the same Empire was able to exercise almost sovereign influence over the smaller neighbouring duchies. The Estes were restored to Modena, and held also Reggio, Mirandola, Massa, and Carrara; the Grand Dukes of Tuscany recovered their old dominions. Marie Louise, Napoleon's wife, became Duchess of Parma; Piacenza being included in the Duchy of Lombardy. Louis Bourbon became Duke of Lucca; but an arrangement was made by which, on the death of Marie Louise, Parma was to revert to him, and he was to hand over Lucca to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, retaining for himself Lunigiana and Pontremoli, and giving Fivizzano to Modena. These changes were accordingly made in 1847. The *States of the Church* were restored intact to the Pope, though the independence of the *Republic of S. Marino* was recognized; but Austria was allowed to keep garrisons at Ferrara and Comacchio, and thus secured an influence in the Papal dominions. The Bourbon dynasty recovered *Naples* and *Sicily*; the house of Savoy retained *Piedmont*, and received in addition *Genoa* and its Riviera.

The campaign of 1858, and the Treaty of Villafranca, added central Lombardy and Parma to the dominions of Savoy: eastern Lombardy and Venice remained under Austria, the boundary being Lake Garda and the River Mincio. By the end of 1860 Tuscany, Modena, and the greater part of the Papal States had given themselves to Savoy, the Pope retaining only the Patrimonio di S. Piero. On the fall of the house of Bourbon in the same year, Naples and Sicily were added to the new kingdom of Italy, the non-intervention of France having been secured by the cession to it of Nizza (Nice) and the county of Savoy proper.

The war of Prussia against Austria in 1866 gave Victor Emmanuel the opportunity of annexing the Venetian province, and finally in 1870 his army conquered the remaining Papal States and entered Rome, which became thenceforward the capital of united Italy.

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LXXI AND LXXII

THE EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE TENTH CENTURY

LXXI AND LXXII

THE EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE TENTH CENTURY

THE geographical changes in the East-Roman or Byzantine Empire in the ninth and tenth centuries may be conveniently set down under two heads: the Islands and the Mainland. The general result was that at the beginning of the eleventh century the extent of the Empire was far larger than at the beginning of the ninth. This territorial expansion is the great feature of the rule of the Armenian, or, as it is generally called, 'Macedonian' dynasty.

1. The *islands* of Sardinia, Sicily, and Crete, were still Imperial in 801. Crete was seized in 823 by Mohammadan rebels from Spain. The date of the loss of Sardinia is unknown. Sicily was won by the Saracens of Africa, but by a slow process of conquest. Agrigentum was taken in 827, Palermo in 831, Messina in 842, Syracuse in 878. The north-western corner held out still longer. Tauromenium was twice taken (902, 963); the fort of Rametta was held by an Imperial garrison till 965. Malta had been seized in 868. Sicily was never recovered, except a small portion in the west, and that only for a few years (1038–42). But NICEPHORUS PHOCAS won back Crete in 961, and Cyprus in 965. Thus of the four great islands of the Mediterranean, all of which were Imperial in 700, the Empire held none (except a corner of Sicily) in 900, but held two, Crete and Cyprus, in 1000.

2. On the *mainland*, both in Europe and Asia, the Empire distinctly advanced. (*a*) In Italy, Bari, which had been occupied by Saracens in 842, was won back by the united forces of Franks and Greeks (871), and was restored to the Eastern Empire. Through the successes of the generals of BASIL I the Imperial authority was recognized throughout the south of Italy (theme of Longibardia), including Gaeta, Naples, Sorrento, and Amalfi. (*b*) In the Illyrian peninsula the Empire steadily retreated before the Slavonic kingdom of Bulgaria. Serdica (Triaditza) was taken early in the ninth century by the pagan king CRUM, but under the great Christian Tsar SIMEON the Bulgarian kingdom wellnigh reached to the Hadriatic, including all Macedonia and Epirus, except the sea-coasts (923–34); moreover Bulgarian supremacy was recognized in Servia. Before Bulgaria was recovered by the Empire it became a part of Russia. It was conquered and occupied by the Russians under SVIATOSLAV, 967–9; even Philippopolis fell into Russian hands (970), and Constantinople was threatened. The Emperor JOHN TZIMISCES drove the Russians out of the peninsula (971), and Eastern Bulgaria, lost for three hundred years, was re-annexed to the Empire, so that the Danube was once more the frontier; while in Western Bulgaria a native tsar was suffered. Drster (Silistria) was named Theodoropolis, and Peristhlaba Ioannopolis (after the empress and emperor), to mark the occasion. But Western or Macedonian Bulgaria became a powerful independent kingdom under SAMUEL (976–1014), who subdued Dyrrhachium and the Asiatic coast, and forced his supremacy upon Servia. This is sometimes called the kingdom of Ochrida, or the Second Bulgarian kingdom. After warfare lasting over forty years it was overthrown by BASIL II, the 'Bulgar-slayer,' in 1018. (*c*) In the north of the Black Sea the outlying 'federate' city of Cherson was annexed and made a theme in the reign of THEOPHILUS (829–42). In 988 it was taken by the Russian Vladimir of Kiev. (*d*) On the Asiatic mainland the frontier against the Saracens remained stationary till the middle of the tenth century, when Nicephorus Phocas and John Tzimisces won back Cilicia and Syria, including the cities of Antioch and Edessa (964–76).

The geographical division of the Empire into *themes* calls for some remarks. The military origin of these districts is clear from the name, which properly applied to divisions of the army. They first appear in the seventh century. We possess no list dating from that period, but we know that there were then a few large governments which were subsequently cut up into a greater number of smaller themes. For the end of the seventh century the following list of governments is probably correct: (1) Exarchate of Africa, (2) Exarchate of Ravenna, (3) Sicily, (4) Calabria (?), (5) Theme of the Helladics, (6) Thrace, (7) Theme of Opsikion, (8) Theme of the Anatolics, (9) Theme of the Armeniacs, (10) Theme of the naval forces[1]. This last theme (*τὸ θέμα τῶν πλωιζομένων* or *τῶν καραβισιάνων*)[2] was in the eighth century broken up into two themes, the Cibyrrhaeot theme, and that of the Aegean Sea; and perhaps at the same time it was curtailed in its inland parts by the formation of the new Thracesian theme (before 740), which was constituted mainly at the expense of the Anatolic. At a later date another naval theme was

[1] At first *theme* was used only in combination with the name of the armies of a district: 'theme of the Anatolics.' Subsequently it could be attached to geographical names: 'theme of Sicily.'

[2] Cp. C. Diehl, L'origine du régime des thèmes (in 'Études d'histoire du moyen âge,' 1896), p. 7.

THE EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE

C. 950 A.D.

(Plate I.)

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THE
EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE
C. 950 A.D.
(Plate II.)
English Miles
10 5 0 10 20 30 40 50
THE PRINCES' ISLANDS
Derve
Bosporus
T. THRACE
Therapia
Galata
CONSTANTINOPOLIS
Chrysopolis
THEME OPTIMATON
Rhegium
Chalcedon
Umbria
Prote
Antigoni
Oxeia
Cartalimea
Pelecas
Nicomedia
PROPONTIS
28
30
32
34
36
42
40
38
Paeonia
Calè Acra
Simope
Lonpolis
Halys F.
Zelichus
Amastra
THEME PAPHLAGONIA
Tium (Teium)
Thracesian Sea
Thracesian
Bosporus
Heraclea
Sangarius F.
Billaeus
Iris F.
Aminsus
THEME ARMENIACON
Dokeia
Hieropolis
Eupatoria
Claudiopolis
Cratea
Ganga (Germanicopolis)
Andrapa
Euchaita
Amasea
Ibora
Komana
Zela
Bazimon
Calonymus
Mokilos Beacon
Nicaea
Sigriane
Daseylium
Lopadion
Prusa
Malagina
Medra
Dadastana
Basileon (Juliopolis)
THEME BUCELLARION
Karisa
Sjara (Basilye Rhyax)
Agriane
Ancyra
Tavium
Hypsele (Siboron)
THEME
Basilika Therma
Mamas Boscon
Dorylaeon
Gorbeus
Sebaste
THEME OPSICION
Achyraus
Cotiaeon
Tembris
Angelos Beacon
Neocaesarea
Nacolia
Hag. Agapetos
Gordalis
Eudoxias
Zompi Bridge
TURMA COMMATA
Aphrazea
Aspona
CHARSIANON
Molassos (Justinopolis)
Doara
Caesarea Mazaca
Justinopolis
Sebastia
Raborkion
Amorion
Klampos
Isamos Beacon
L. Tuttia
Soandos
Nazianzus
Archelais
Malakopaca
Cave of Kasis (?)
Sasima
Mt. Argaeus
Mt. Argaeus Beacon
Savatra
Prisian (Dragüe)
Tyana
Lulon (Beacon)
Kara-dun
R. Karasu
Nigde
Kaisos
Kybistra
Podandos
Pylae
Adana
Tarsus
Zephyrion
Pompeiopolis
Sarus F.
Iskenderiji
Rhossus (Russis)
Orontes
Carpasium
Lâdikîja
Gibleh
Balaneae
Taratûs
Constantia
Cyrenea
Lapithus
Cythea
Famagusta
Tricomo
Soli
CYPRUS
Arsinoe
Tamassus
Citium
Sidon
Tripolis
Hippus
Gadara
Scythopolis
Gerasa
Philadelphia
Heshbon
Rabbath Ammon
Kilbian Plain
Hyrcanus
Machaerus
Mt. Nebo
Jericho
Jordan
Jordan R.
Dead Sea
Jerusalem
Bethlehem
Hebron
Beersheba
Gaza
Rhinocorura
Pelusium
Tanis
Damietta
Mendesian
Sebennytic
Phatnitic
Bolbitine
Canopic
Heracleotic
Pelusiac
Tanitic

formed—that of Samos—probably by combining parts of the Cibyrrhaeot and the Aegean themes. In consequence of processes of this kind, which went on throughout the eighth and ninth centuries, a large number of themes of very various size and importance meet us in the tenth century. We have several theme-lists belonging to this century; the following is the enumeration deducible from the treatise *on the Themes* composed by the Emperor CONSTANTINE VII: (1) Anatolic, (2) Thracesian, (3) Opsician, (4) Optimaton [1], (5) Bucellarian, (6) Paphlagonia, (7) Chaldia, (8) Mesopotamia, (9) Armeniac, (10) Cappadocia, (11) Charsian, (12) Colonea, (13) Sebastea, (14) Lycandos, (15) Cibyrrhaeot, (16) Samos, (17) Aegean, (18) Thrace, (19) Macedonia, (20) Strymon, (21) Thessaly, (22) Hellas, (23) Peloponnesus, (24) Cephallenia, (25) Nicopolis, (26) Dyrrhachium, (27) Sicily, (28) Longibardia, (29) Cherson [2]. Of these, Sicily was practically non-existent, and the list expresses only a momentary state of things. New themes were often called into existence on the frontier to meet temporary needs, such evanescent creations as Leontopolis and Charpezic, which existed in the early years of the tenth century, but are unknown to Constantine. Moreover, themes were often united or split up for some temporary purpose. The conquests of Nicephorus Phocas and his successors added new themes—Crete, Cyprus, Cilicia, Antioch, &c.

The maps do not take in the extreme eastern or the extreme western portions of the Empire. For these see the general map of Europe in the tenth century (Plate V). The boundary divisions of the themes are in many cases highly uncertain; and, in particular, the portions of the mainland which belonged to the maritime themes of Samos and the Aegean cannot be accurately fixed [1].

J. B. BURY.

[1] But Constantine says that Optimaton was only a quasi-theme. It represents, however, a large geographical district.

[2] Departure is made from the actual list so far as to leave out Cyprus, which was not Imperial in Constantine's reign, and to include Cappadocia and Charsianon, which were distinct governments when the Treatise on the Themes was written, though they had been temporarily united with the Armeniac Theme some years before.

[1] For identifications of places and for roads see W. M. Ramsay, 'Historical Geography of Asia Minor', and 'Cities and Bishoprics of Phrygia'; and J. G. Anderson, The Road System of Eastern Asia Minor, in the 'Journal of Hellenic Studies,' xvii, pp. 22 *sqq.* (1897).

LXXIII

THE EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE FROM THE DEATH OF BASIL II TO ITS FALL (1025–1472)

LXXIII

THE EASTERN ROMAN EMPIRE FROM THE DEATH OF BASIL II TO ITS FALL (1025–1472)

In the fifty years which followed the death of BASIL II, the Roman Empire retreated considerably both in the west and in the east. But whereas in the west it lost hardly any territory which it had not lost before, and whereas it retained most of the territory which had been won back for it by TZIMISCES and BASIL, in the east it was shorn of provinces which had never before passed into the possession of an alien power. Between BASIL'S conquest of Bulgaria and the Latin conquest (in 1204–5), the two most important dates for our purpose are 1071, when by the victory of Manzikert the Seljūks won possession of the greater part of Asia Minor, and 1187, when the rise of a new Bulgarian kingdom undid the work of BASIL.

I. 1025–1204[1].

1. In *Europe*, the Empire lost Italy to the Normans in the course of the eleventh century; *Naples* indeed lingered on as a nominally Imperial city till 1138. It was but a small set-off against these losses that the east coast of Sicily was won back from the Saracen for a moment (1038–1042), or that *Ancona* for a few years (1163–8) acknowledged the sway of the Emperor MANUEL COMNENUS. In the Balkan peninsula, Servia rebelled and was lost in 1060; the city of *Belgrade* was won by Hungary in 1064. But the conqueror MANUEL reasserted the supremacy of the Empire over Servia and won Zeugmin (over against Belgrade) from Hungary. These achievements of MANUEL were annulled soon after his death (1180); and seven years later the Bulgaro-Vlachian (or Third Bulgarian) Kingdom was founded (see Plate LXXIV, South-eastern Europe, c. 1210), which included the original Bulgarian territory north of the Haemus, and, like it, spread south and west, but never became so large as the realm of SIMEON. The Normans, who had robbed the Empire of its Italian possessions, had sought also to diminish its territory in the Illyrian peninsula by descents on the Epirot coast and by occupying *Dyrrhachium* and *Corfu* (Korypho). The Sicilian king, WILLIAM the Good, conquered the Theme of Cephallenia (1185), and these islands remained in the possession of the family to which he granted them in fief till the middle of the fourteenth century. By the end of the twelfth century the European possessions of the Empire were little more than Greece, Epirus, the seaboard of Macedonia, and the south of Thrace, from Hadrian's to Constantine's city.

2. In *Asia*, there had been an advance in Armenia and Iberia under BASIL II (who had also reduced Abasgia to a state of dependency) and under CONSTANTINE IX. *Ani* was won in 1045 and *Kars* in 1064. But the year which witnessed the capture of Kars saw the loss of Ani, the first success of the Seljūk Turks against the Empire. Seven years later the new invaders occupied the greater part of Asia Minor, and founded the Kingdom of Rūm; and in 1081 they took Antioch. The Sultans established themselves at Nicaea, but they were driven back from this outpost by ALEXIUS I (1097), and then made Iconium their capital. In the south-eastern corner of Asia Minor, in the highlands of Cilicia, descendants of the old Armenian dynasty founded a new Armenia (known as Lesser Armenia) in 1080, which maintained itself against the Turks and owed a loose allegiance to the Emperors. MANUEL asserted somewhat like a real overlordship over this kingdom, just as he had asserted his authority in Servia. *Cyprus* rebelled from the Empire under an usurper in 1182, only to be taken by a Latin power (RICHARD of England) in 1191 (transferred to GUY of Lusignan 1192).

II. 1204–1472.

The Latin conquest of Constantinople broke up what was left of the Eastern Empire, shorn as it had been by Slavs, Normans, and Turks among Greek and Latin powers. The states belonging to the Latin Empire of Romania are enumerated in connexion with Plate LXXIV. Three Greek states emerged from the disruption, two in Asia and one in Europe: the Despotate of Epirus, the Empire of Trebizond, and the Empire of Nicaea. The last of these three continued the succession of the Eastern Empire.

1. The Empire of Trebizond was founded at the time of the Latin conquest (not in consequence of it) by a member of the Comnenian House; and the disintegration of the Empire enabled it to maintain an independent existence. It took in the seaboard along the south of the Euxine from the river Sangarius to eastward of Trebizond, the line being broken at Samsun by the sultanate of Rūm. The part to

[1] For the themes marked in the first map see the list in Skabalanovich, Vizantiiskoe Gosudarstvo, pp. 193 *sqq*. *Upper* and *Lower Media* are also known respectively as *Vaspurakan* and *Edessa*, and *Langobardia* as *Italy*. The name of the theme which included *Singidon* (Belgrade) and *Sirmium* is uncertain.

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the west of Samsun was presently annexed by the Empire of Nicaea. The eastern part lasted till 1461. In 1281 the ruler of Trebizond resigned his claim to the Roman Empire in favour of the Emperor of Constantinople, and adopted the title 'Emperor of all the East, Iberia, and Peratea.' *Peratea* was the Tauric peninsula (over against the Trapezuntine dominion); so that the Empire of Trebizond was a power both European and Asiatic. The Asiatic territory was conquered in 1461; the European in 1472.

2. The Despotate (or dominion) of Epirus (held by the House of Angelos) passed through three stages. (1) The despot at first held some cities in Greece (Corinth, Argos, and Nauplia), but these soon passed into the hands of Latin powers (1210–12). He consolidated his power in Epirus, and won *Durazzo* and *Corfu* from Venice. Then (2) there was an advance eastward: the Latin kingdom of Thessalonica was conquered, Hadrianople was taken; and the Despotate of Epirus became the Empire of Thessalonica (1225), thus entering on its second stage, which lasted till 1237, when (3) this realm was broken up into two parts, the Despotate of Epirus (with Corfu) being severed from the Empire of Thessalonica. The Despotate was annexed by the Empire about a century later, but only to be lost to Servia within a few years.

3. The Empire of Nicaea gradually beat back the Latin Emperors to the west of the Bosphorus, and conquered the islands of Samos, Chios, Cos, and Lemnos. Then it advanced into Europe. The Empire of Thessalonica gave up its pretensions to imperial rank and submitted to the lordship of the Emperor of Nicaea (1246); and it was presently incorporated in his Empire. He then advanced against Bulgaria in the north and against Epirus in the west. *Durazzo* was recovered; and a combination of the Epirot prince with some Latin powers was defeated at Pelagonia in 1259. *Constantinople* was recovered in 1261; and soon afterwards a number of places in Southern Peloponnesus (*Maina, Misithra, Monemvasia*[1]). In this region the Greek power gradually advanced during the following century, and in 1430 all the Peloponnesus, except some Venetian coast towns (such as Modon and Coron), was subject to the Emperor of Constantinople. These southern possessions of the Empire were cut off from the northern in Epirus, Macedonia, and Thrace by intervening Latin powers. But its northern possessions were curtailed by the brief Servian expansion (from the Save to the Corinthian Gulf) under Stephen Dušan, and after his death (1355) by the Ottoman Turks. The Turks had in the meantime, before 1350, conquered all the Asiatic territory of the Empire, except the coast of the Bosphorus and *Philadelphia* (which was lost before 1391). Rhodes and other islands had been lost to the knights of St. John. The first important European conquest of the Turks was Hadrianople. When in 1424 the Emperor and the Sultan settled their boundaries, the Empire had the Euxine coast to Mesembria, the Propontis as far as Selymbria, the Chalcidic peninsula and Thessalonica, Zeituni (Lamia); the islands of Lesbos and Thasos; Aenus. In the following years these places were lost; Constantinople itself fell in 1453; the Peloponnesian province was not conquered till 1460.

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[1] Monemvasia had been won from the Greeks by the Prince of Achaia in 1248.

LXXIV

SOUTH-EASTERN EUROPE AND ASIA MINOR, *c.* 1210

LIBRARY
OF THE
BOMBAY
BRANCH
OF THE
ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.

LXXIV

SOUTH-EASTERN EUROPE AND ASIA MINOR, *c.* 1210

WHEN the Frank Crusaders and the Venetians captured Constantinople in 1204, they proceeded to establish the Latin Empire of Romania, which was intended to take the place of the Eastern Roman Empire and, like it, subsist side by side with the Western Roman Empire. The consequence was that there were four, for some years five, empires and potentates with the imperial title (the Western Empire, the Latin Empire, the Empire of Nicaea, the Empire of Trebizond,—and, after 1222, the Empire of Thessalonica). The conquerors divided the spoil by an Act of Partition which assigned one quarter of the Byzantine territory to the Emperor, three-eighths to Venice, and the remaining three-eighths to the Crusaders; the territory was still to be won. The designed partition was never actually carried out. The Emperor had Constantinople, Southern Thrace, the southern coast of the Propontis, and the coast of Bithynia as far as the Sangarius; also the islands of Lesbos, Chios, Tenos, Lemnos, Syros, and some others. This share was soon reduced by the advance of the Empire of Nicaea; and after the recapture of Constantinople in 1261 'Emperor of Romania' was merely a title.

The territories which *Venice* acquired differed considerably from the territories which were assigned to her. The most important was the island of *Crete* (Venetian 1206–1669). In the Peloponnesus she got the ports of *Modon* and *Coron* in the south-western peninsula (Venetian 1206–1502). She obtained a foothold in *Negroponte* (Chalcis), the capital of Euboea, whereby she ultimately acquired the chief influence in the island (taken by the Turks 1470). The island *Duchy of Naxos*, comprising most of the Cyclades, was founded by a Venetian, MARCO SANUDO, in 1207; the greater part of this state passed to the Turk in 1537 (Naxos itself in 1566). Venice won *Durazzo* (1206) and *Corfu* (1207), lost them again almost immediately, and recovered them towards the close of the following century (1386).

The most important of the Latin states next to the Empire itself was the *Kingdom of Thessalonica*, which was founded by BONIFACE of Montferrat in 1204 and took in Thessaly (or, as it was now commonly called, Great Vlachia). But this kingdom was more short-lived than the Latin Empire itself. It was conquered (1222) by the Greek Despots of Epirus and became part of the Greek Empire of Thessalonica, which was presently made subject to the Empire of Nicaea (see preface to Plate LXXIII).

South of Thessaly the kingdom of Thessalonica had two important fiefs, Athens (with Thebes) and Achaia. OTTO DE LA ROCHE founded the Grand-Lordship (*Megaskyrate*), which afterwards became the Duchy (1260), of Athens. This state passed, in the following century, into the hands of the Spanish adventurers who were known as the Catalan Grand Company (1311); they transferred it to a member of the Sicilian branch of the House of Aragon (MANFRED, son of FREDERIC II) 1326; and it finally passed to the Acciajuoli of Florence 1386, from whom it was conquered by the Turks. The domination of the Catalans associated Athens with Thessalian *Neopatrae*, of which they were also lords, and which they likewise transferred to the Sicilian, who took the title of Duke of Athens and Neopatrae.

The principality of *Achaia* or *Morea* was conquered by degrees. Monembasia was won in 1248, and the whole peninsula, except the Venetian places in the south-west, was then in the hands of the Prince of Achaia (WILLIAM VILLEHARDOUIN). But, soon after, the Greeks recovered Monembasia, Mistra, and Maina (1262); and this was a beginning which was ultimately to lead to the complete annexation of the principality to the restored Greek Empire.

Euboea (Aegripons, Negroponte), another fief of the Thessalonian kingdom, was parcelled out among Lombard lords, but finally passed to Venice (see above).

A word may be said here of the territories acquired in the east by Genoa and by the Knights of St. John, though neither had any share in the division of spoil of 1204. When the Greeks recovered Constantinople *Genoa* obtained important commercial privileges from MICHAEL VIII, and established a colony at Galata. But her greatest colony was at *Caffa* in the Crimea, from which she made some short-lived conquests on the south shore of the Black Sea. Some of the Aegean islands, too, came into the possession of Genoese families in the course of the fourteenth century, such as *Chios* (1303) and *Lesbos* (1355). At an earlier date Genoa had seized Rhodes (1249), but retained it only for a short time. This island had at first preserved its independence, and then passed under the rule of the Emperor of Nicaea. Won back immediately from the Genoese, *Rhodes* was lost in 1309 to the Knights of St. John, who also established their power in *Cos* and at *Halicarnassus*, and maintained themselves here till the sixteenth century (1521).

In the map (which is based on Menke's No. 86), the territories held by Greek powers are coloured pink; but it must be observed that this does not imply dependence on the Empire of Nicaea. Thus GABALAS, the lord of Rhodes, was independent; as were also the despot of Epirus and the rulers of Trebizond. In the same way, the fiefs of individual Venetians (even when they held of the Emperor of Romania, as in the case of Lemnos and the Duchy of Naxos) are coloured yellow, like the territories of Venice, so as to exhibit the extent of Venetian influence.

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LXXV

THE FOUR EASTERN PATRIARCHATES, *c.* 750

LXXV

THE FOUR EASTERN PATRIARCHATES, *c.* 750

AT the time of the Synod of Nicæa (325) the ecclesiastical organization of the Empire was, with very few exceptions, modelled on the civil. Thus each city had its bishop, each province its metropolitan, and each (civil) diocese its superior metropolitan or exarch. In 431, however, the island of *Cyprus* was declared by the Synod of Ephesus to be an autocephalous province independent of the see of Antioch, while in 451 the practical authority exercised by the Bishop of Constantinople over the dioceses of Thrace, Asia, and Pontus was formally recognized by the Synod of Chalcedon, after which the bishops of Cæsarea, Ephesus, and Heraclea were in precedence only superior to other metropolitans. At the same time the three provinces of Palestine were erected into a separate patriarchate under the Bishop of *Jerusalem*, who had previously held only honorary rank without legal jurisdiction. By these alterations the four patriarchates of *Constantinople*, *Alexandria*, *Antioch*, and *Jerusalem* were finally established. In the West the Bishop of *Rome* exercised patriarchal authority over the whole of the Western Empire, as it stood between 314 and 379; and, when Eastern Illyricum was transferred to the Eastern Empire in the latter year, no change was made in the ecclesiastical organization. So close was the connexion between civil and ecclesiastical promotion that, when a city received the honorary rank of a civil metropolis without being made the capital of a province, the bishop of that city also claimed metropolitan rank. Hence the Bishop of *Nicæa* sat as a metropolitan in 451; but his claim to exercise metropolitan authority in a part of the province was rejected by the Synod. Hence, perhaps, sprang the institution of the autocephalous sees, or archbishoprics, depending solely on the patriarch. Similar to the position of Nicæa was that of *Chalcedon*; but, though in the earliest Notitiæ (c. 700) the Bishop of Nicæa appears as the actual head of an ecclesiastical province, the Bishop of Chalcedon, though ranking as a metropolitan, not merely as an archbishop, never had any suffragans.

In Pamphylia the position of metropolitan was disputed by *Perga* and *Side*, both of which appear as metropolitan sees in 431, while in the Notitiæ a definite province is assigned to each. In the time of Anastasius (491–518) new ecclesiastical provinces were formed in Euphratesia and Mesopotamia under *Sergiupolis* and *Dara* respectively without any change in the civil organization. In Cappadocia II the rank of a civil metropolis was given by Justinian to *Mocisus*, the bishop of which sat as a metropolitan in 536; but, since the provinces of *Tyana* and Mocisus are both called Cappadocia II in the Notitiæ, it is clear that no civil division of the province was made. *Hierapolis* in Pacatiana was made the capital of a new ecclesiastical province after Mocisus, but before 553.

As a general rule, when a new civil province was formed, a new ecclesiastical province followed; but, when the province of Theodorias in Syria was instituted by Justinian, it was expressly provided that no difference should be made in the position of the Bishop of *Laodicea*. Similarly, in the numerous instances in which Justinian combined two or more civil provinces into one, the ecclesiastical divisions remained as before; and, as soon after this time the old civil provinces practically ceased to exist, the previous connexion between the civil and ecclesiastical organization came to an end, though the new civil division into themes was not without its influence on the ecclesiastical divisions. Thus at some time in the seventh century the old province of Achaia was divided into the two ecclesiastical provinces of *Hellas* and *Peloponnesus*; but, since ecclesiastical provinces as such never had names, we must infer that there was a corresponding division into themes or other administrative districts. Similarly the fact that *Naupactus*, which in the old civil organization was in the province of Achaia, appears in the Nova Tactica of Leo VI as metropolis of the ecclesiastical province of Nicopolis shows that this province was made to correspond with the theme of the same name, which was of larger extent than the old province of Epirus Vetus. Whether this change was made before or after the period represented in the map there is no evidence to show. The only other new province created before this period was that of *Philippi* in Macedonia, but the date of its creation is unknown.

After the breach with Rome over the Iconoclastic controversy in 733 that portion of the old Illyrian prefecture which still remained in Roman hands was transferred from the patriarchate of Rome to that of Constantinople, together with the provinces of Sicily, Calabria, Sardinia, and Dalmatia. At the same time Isauria, which was the only part of the patriarchate of Antioch remaining to the Empire, was also transferred to Constantinople.

On the other hand, it is most probable that those parts of the patriarchate of Constantinople which lay outside the bounds of the Empire were transferred to the patriarchate of Antioch; these would include the province of Armenia I and that part of the Armenia Magna of Maurice which was in the possession of the Saracens, together with the Catholicate of Iberia (which, however, is traditionally assigned to Antioch from the beginning) and the shadowy claim to supremacy

THE EASTERN PATRIARCHATES

C. 750

English Miles
50 0 50 100

Explanation

Patriarchate of Constantinople
" " Antioch
" " Jerusalem
" " Alexandria

Patriarchal Sees ... CONSTANTINOPLE
Metropolitan " ... Heraclea
Autocephalous " ... Bizye
Ordinary " ... Nyssa

Thrace
Hæmimontus
Dacia
Mediterranea
Macedonia
Dardania
Thessalia
Hellespontus
Bithynia
Honorias
Paphlagonia
Helenopontus
Pontus Polemoniacus
Armenia Magna
Armenia
Galatia I
Galatia II
Cappadocia I
Cappadocia II
Cappadocia III
Cappadocia Secunda
Lycaonia
Isauria
Pisidia
Lydia
Asia
Phrygia Pacatiana
Phrygia Salutaris
Caria
Lycia
Pamphylia
Cilicia I
Cilicia II
Cilicia III
Cilicia Secunda
Syria I
Syria II
Syria Salutaris
Phœnice Libanensis
Phœnice Maritima
Palæstina I
Palæstina II
Palæstina III
Arabia
Osroene
Mesopotamia
Augustamnica
Arcadia
Peloponnesus
Epirus Nova
Epirus Vetus
Thessalia
Macedonia
Dardania
Dacia Mediterranea
Thrace
Hæmimontus
Rhodope
Europa
Scythia
Gothi
Abasgia
Colchis
Iberia
Albania
Sarmatia Asiatica
Sarmatia Europea
Cyprus
(Autocephalous Province)

CONSTANTINOPLE
ANTIOCH
ALEXANDRIA
JERUSALEM

Long. East of Greenwich

Oxford: Clarendon Press

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over Monophysite Persarmenia. These at least are the boundaries laid down in the next century, when the patriarchate of Constantinople is said to have extended as far as Cappadocia and Chaldia; and the transference is not likely to have been made at any other time than the present. The actual boundary, of course, fluctuated from time to time as the frontier advanced or receded.

The accompanying map represents the condition of affairs within twenty years of the transference of the provinces, and is founded mainly upon the Notitia published by Dr. de Boor in the *Zeitschrift für Kirchengeschichte*, xii. 520.

Between the time when this Notitia was composed and the Synod of 787 several changes were made. *Syllæum* in Pamphylia was separated from Perga and made the metropolis of a new province; but at some time between 787 and 812 this matter was settled by the two cities being united into one metropolitan see for the reunited province. *Trebizond* in Pontus Polemoniacus was transferred to *Lazica* and united into one metropolitan see with *Phasis*, though Rizæum, which lay between the two, was strangely allowed to remain a suffragan see in Polemoniacus. It is possible that the bishops of *Euchaita*, *Amorium*, *Smyrna*, and *Patræ* also advanced some claims to metropolitan rank at the Synod; and it is probable that the theological controversy, which had raged for the last sixty years, had caused the organization at this time to be in an unsettled state. To this cause we should perhaps assign the curious transference of a group of cities in North-west Pacatiana from Laodicea to Hierapolis, which had taken place before the date of De Boor's Notitia. This last change, however, was allowed to be permanent.

About 810 *Patræ* in Peloponnesus appears as a metropolis; and its elevation was followed by the erection of a separate province in Asia under *Smyrna*, and, probably before 838, by the promotion of *Amorium* to be the metropolis of a new province carved out of Galatia II, Phrygia Salutaris, and Pisidia. *Cotyæum* in Salutaris, *Neæ Patræ* in Hellas, and *Mitylene* in the island of Lesbos appear as metropolitan sees in 879; but these three changes were not the result of any new divisions, but only of the promotion of autocephalous to metropolitan sees by the erection of villages into bishoprics. By the same method was brought about the elevation of *Euchaita* under Leo VI (886–911). The change whereby *Naupactus* became the metropolis of the province of Nicopolis has been already mentioned. This is the period represented in the Nova Tactica published by Professor Gelzer (*Georgii Cyprii 'Descriptio Orbis Romani,'* p. 57), and depicted in the inset map. After this time changes were frequent, and generally took the form, rare previously, of the erection of a metropolitan without suffragans. The details of these changes may be seen in Professor Gelzer's article in the *Jahrbücher für Protestantische Theologie*, xii. 540, and are too far removed in time from the date of the map to be worth repeating here.

Of the changes in Italy and Sicily I have taken no account, since these countries are not included in the map. Of the changes occasioned by the extension of the frontier towards the East the only one which falls before the date of the Nova Tactica is the erection of *Camacha*, previously the only Roman possession beyond the Euphrates, into the metropolis of a new province, comprising the south-western portion of the old Maurician Armenia Magna, or rather of that part of it which lay outside the Justinianean Armenia II (see Gelzer, *Geo. Cypr.* p. lvii ff.). If the order of the metropolitans in the Nova Tactica is to be trusted, this was done before 879. About the same time the province of Armenia I was recovered.

In the three Eastern patriarchates there are not sufficient data for producing an accurate map of the organization at this period. In the patriarchate of *Antioch* I have followed the eleventh-century Notitia published by Gelzer (*Byz. Zeitschr.* i. 247), though it is of course possible that sees existed in 750 which had become extinct before the date of the Notitia, and also that sees which had lapsed before 750 were restored when the Empire recovered Syria in the tenth century. For the metropolitan and autocephalous sees I have followed the list given in Schöne's *Eusebius*, vol. i, App. p. 82, and in Parthey's Notitia V, which dates before 734, adding only the province of *Emesa*, which seems to have existed in the latter half of the eighth century (Gelzer, *l. c.* p. 267), and the provinces which, as I have argued above, were transferred from Constantinople in or soon after 734. In the patriarchate of *Jerusalem* I have included only those sees which can be proved to have existed before 750 and to have survived the Saracen conquest, depending mainly on the list given by Nilus Doxapatrius (see Gelzer, *l. c.* p. 256). In the patriarchate of *Alexandria*, which was restored in 742, only two Melchite sees can be shown to have existed before the accession of Politian (763), and I have therefore marked no more.

The following four cities, though of autocephalous rank, and therefore of some importance, cannot be located and are hence not marked on the map:—*Germia* in Galatia II, *Nicopolis Bulerus* in Thrace, *Cotrada* in Isauria, and *Heraclea-Pidachthoe* in Armenia II. The site of *Dorus*, the metropolis of Gothia, is also unknown. Unknown also are *Carabizye* and *Phylli*, which appear as autocephalous sees in the Nova Tactica; and the position of Codræ[1], which appears in the same list, is very doubtful[2].

E. W. BROOKS.

[1] Tomaschek (*Sitzungsberichte der Wiener Akad.*, cxxiv.) places it in Pamphylia, on the Cestrus.

[2] For the compilation of the map and introduction I am indebted to the following modern authorities:

SPRUNER, *Handatlas für die Geschichte des Mittelalters und der Neueren Zeit*, edited by Menke.
KIEPERT, Πίναξ τοῦ Μεσαιωνικοῦ Ἑλληνισμοῦ.
„ *Wandkarte von Palästina.*
„ *Specialkarte vom westlichen Kleinasien.*
RAMSAY, *Historical Geography of Asia Minor.*
„ *Cities and Bishoprics of Phrygia.*
DE BOOR, *Nachträge zu den* Notitiæ Episcopatuum (*Zeitschr. für Kirchengeschichte*, xii. 303, 519; xiv. 573).
GELZER, *Zur Zeitbestimmung der Griechischen* Notitiæ Episcopatuum (*Jahrbücher für Protestantische Theologie*, xii. 337, 529).
„ *Die kirchliche Geographie Griechenlands vor dem Slaweneinbruche* (*Zeitschr. für wissenschaftliche Theologie*, xxxv. 419).
„ *Ungedruckte u. wenig bekannte Bistumverzeichnisse der orientalischen Kirche* (*Byz. Zeitschr.* i. 255; ii. 22).
„ *Georgii Cyprii 'Descriptio Orbis Romani.'*
HEBERDEY and WILHELM, *Reisen in Kilikien.*
ANDERSON, *A Summer in Phrygia* (*Journal of Hellenic Studies*, xvii. 396).

LE QUIEN'S *Oriens Christianus* is of course indispensable, and J. M. NEALE'S *History of the Eastern Church* has sometimes been useful.

LXXVI

SYRIA DURING THE PERIOD OF THE CRUSADES

1096—1291

LXXVI

SYRIA DURING THE PERIOD OF THE CRUSADES, 1096–1291

OF the four leading states founded by the Crusaders in Syria, the principality of *Antioch* was the most northerly and the kingdom of *Jerusalem* the most southerly. The county of *Tripoli* lay between these two extremes, while to the north-east, on either side of the Euphrates, lay the county of *Edessa*.

The county of *Edessa*, founded by Baldwin of Boulogne, the brother of Godfrey de Bouillon, first King of Jerusalem, dates from 1098. Originally it was not a fief of the kingdom of Jerusalem, since it was established before the taking of the Holy City. On Godfrey's death Baldwin was elected king, and endowed his cousin Baldwin du Bourg with Edessa and its dependencies. Thus Edessa became a vassal state to the kingdom of Jerusalem. On BALDWIN I's death BALDWIN II became King of Jerusalem, and in his turn handed over Edessa to his kinsman Joscelin de Courtney, from whom it passed to his son Joscelin II. In 1144, at Christmas, the town of Edessa was taken by Zengi, and, though recaptured by Joscelin for a few months towards the end of 1146, almost immediately fell back into Muslim hands. The rest of the county, 'ground' (in William of Tyre's words) 'between the two millstones,' Masud, Sultan of Iconium, towards the north, and the Atabegs of Aleppo and Mosil towards the south, was finally abandoned by the Crusaders in or about the year 1152. Nominally the deserted cities were handed over to the Greek Emperor, whose power however in these parts was very feeble, and they soon drifted into other lordship.

The principality of *Antioch* was founded by Boamund in 1098–99. From the earliest times it was a bone of contention between the Greek Emperors and the Kings of Jerusalem. Twice at least (1137 and 1142) did John Comnenus come south to enforce his claim; and once Manuel Comnenus, his son, led an army to Antioch for the same purpose. The principality extended northwards as far as the river Gaihun, and southwards to the river that flows 'between Margat and Valenia,' perhaps the modern Burg-es-Sabi, or, according to Ray, the modern Wady Mehica, where the county of Tripoli commenced. Eastward its boundaries were vague and fluctuating. In the twelfth century the Armenians began to show signs of activity in the neighbourhood of Cilicia, and conquered Tarsus from the Greeks for a time in 1132. At first they were more or less dependent on the Princes of Antioch; but at last, about the year 1193, they established their independence and fixed the limits of their state, towards the south, at Portella. Leo of Armenia was now definitely set free from his homage to the Prince of Antioch, and in 1198 or 1199 was crowned King of Armenia by the Archbishop of Mentz acting in the name of the German Emperor. Bibars the Sultan of Egypt took Antioch, May 27, 1268, and immediately after this the Templars abandoned their two fortresses to the north of this city and 'all the land of Port Bonnell at the entering in of Armenia.'

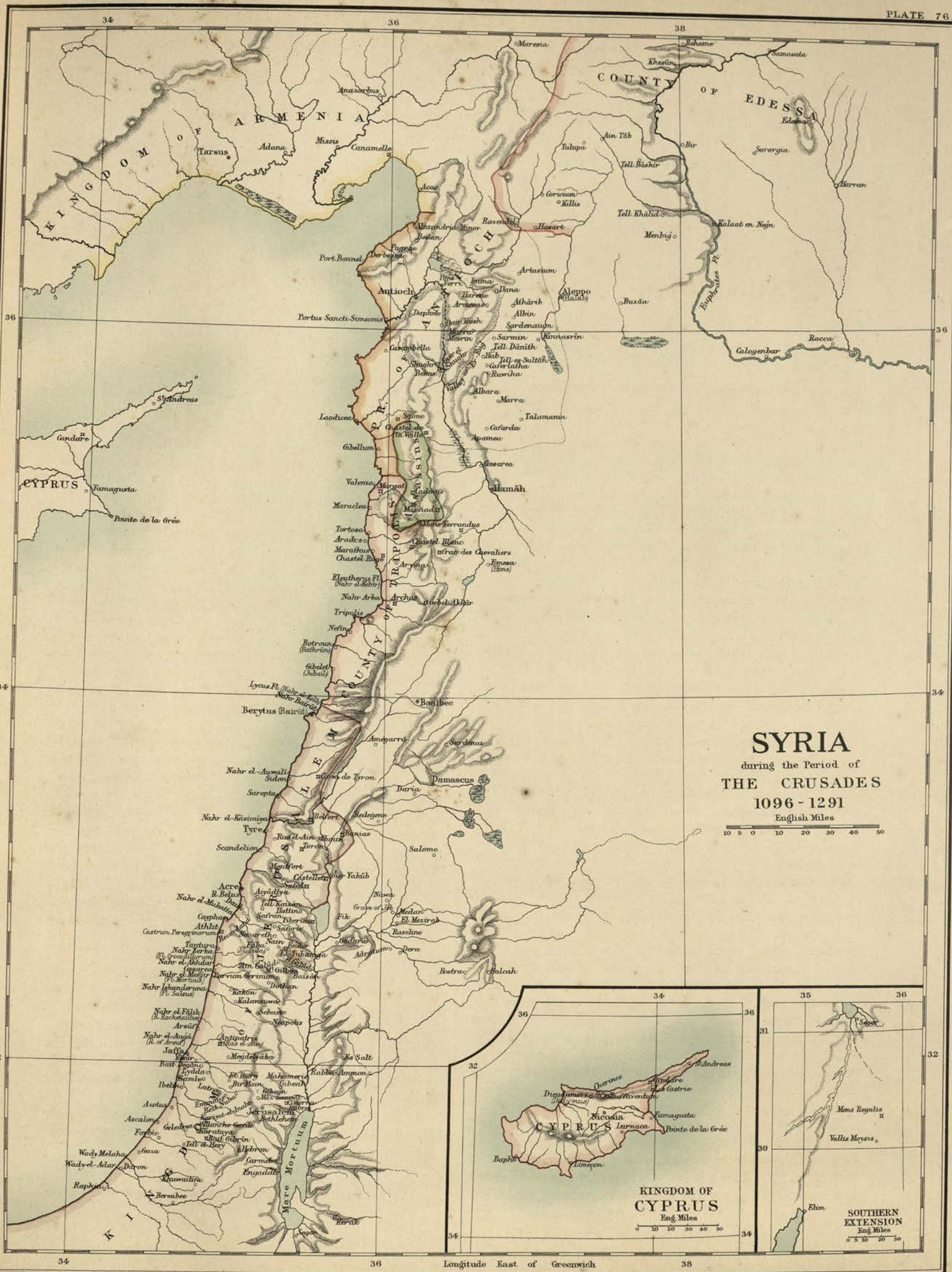
The county of *Tripoli* was bounded, on the north, by the principality of Antioch; and, on the south, by the Nahr Ibrahim, or Adonis. It was practically established by Raymond of St. Gilles (who died in 1105); but Tripoli itself was not taken till 1109. On its east lay the territories of the Assassins. Raymond III (otherwise known as Raymond II), dying in 1189 without issue, left his lordship to his godson Raymond, eldest son of Boamund III of Antioch. After a somewhat confusing tangle of events the county of Tripoli and the principality of Antioch were both united in the person of Boamund IV (ob. 1232), and remained in the hands of his descendants till the final fall of both cities, Antioch in 1268 and Tripoli in 1289.

The kingdom of *Jerusalem* properly so called extended, at the time of its fullest development, from the Nahr Ibrahim to El-Arish on the confines of Egypt (beyond the limits of the map). According to the traditions of the thirteenth century, it was subdivided into some twenty-one greater fiefs, each owing a specified number of knights and sergeants to their overlord the king. These fiefs are: (1) Jaffa and Ascalon; (2) Ramla or Rames; (3) Ibelin; (4) the 'principality' of Tiberias, including the city of Tiberias and the stronghold of Safed (Saphet); (5) the lordship of Sidon and Beaufort; (6) of Cæsarea; (7) of Beisan; (8) of Kerak and Montréal beyond the Jordan and Dead Sea; (9) of St. Abraham or Hebron; (10) of Blanchegarde, i.e. Tell es-Safi; (11) the bishopric of Lydda; (12) the lordship of Arsuf; (13) of Haifa; (14) and of Caymont; (15) the archbishopric of Nazareth; (16) the 'fief of Count Joscelin' (probably between Tiberias and Acre or Sidon); (17) the lordship of Scandelion; (18) of Tyre; (19) of Toron or Tubnin; (20) of Belinas or Caesarea Philippi; (21) of Beirut. It is obvious however that this list is made up of heterogeneous elements, and it is hardly possible that all these fiefs can have existed at one and the same time[1].

In the following list of places alternative names have been placed side by side for the convenience of those using the contemporary narratives.

T. A. ARCHER.

[1] In the map the name Dera, east of Adratum, should be omitted.



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LIST OF NAMES

Accaron, *Acre, Ptolemais.*
Accaron, *Ekron*, the modern *Akīr*, 4 miles east of Ibelin.
Adratum, 23 miles north-west of Bostra.
Alba Specula, or *Blanche-garde.*
Arnoldi Castrum, probably *El-Burg*, between Jaffa and Jerusalem.

Barin, *Mons Ferrandus*, east of Tripoli.
Beauvoir Castle, modern *Kaukab el-Hawa*, 6 miles north of Baisan.
Betenuble, modern *Beit-Nūba.*
Bochée, La, valley eastward of Crac des Chevaliers.
Bombrac, probably modern *Ibn Ibrāk*, 4½ miles east of Jaffa.

Caco, modern *Kakān*, south-east of Caesarea.
Camolla, Camela, Emesa, *Hims.*
Casal Imbert, the modern *Khurbet Hamsīn*, some 9 miles north of Acre and 2 miles from coast.
Casella de Planis et Casella Maen, identified by Bishop Stubbs with Beit-Deǵan (6 miles south-east of Jaffa) and Safirīya (7 miles south-east of the same place). Others would identify 'Casal of the Plains' with Kalansuwa.
Casellum Balneorum, according to Bishop Stubbs Amwās or Emmaus.
Cavea Roob, obviously between the Jordan and Adratum. L. Oliphant states that the upper valley of the Wady Shellaleh, in his belief, still bears the name of Wady Rahûb. If this be so, Cavea Roob lies a few miles to the south or south-east of Mezarib.
Caymont, modern *Tell Keimūn*, 12 miles south-east of Acre, 11 miles from coast.
Cisterna Rotunda, *Khuwailifa*, south-east of Gaza.
Crac des Hospitaliers, *Crac des Chevaliers*, south-east of Tortosa.
Crac de Montréal, *Shobek* or *Mons Regalis*; see the inset map.
Crac de la Pierre, *Kerak*, east of the Dead Sea.

Destrictum, *Les Destroits*, or the modern *Dustrey*, about ⅔ mile east of Athlīt.

Emmaus, modern *Amwās*, and perhaps medieval *Castellum Balneorum.*

Fémie, *Apamea*, to the north of Hamāh.
Forbelet, probably the Arabic *Aferbela.* Rey would make it the modern *Kalat Maleh* close to Baisān.
Forbia, modern *Herbiya*, 8 miles north-east of Gaza and about 2 miles from the coast.

Gadara, 7 miles east of the Jordan and 25 miles west of Adratum.
Galatia, according to Bishop Stubbs *Karatīya*, 10 miles east of Ascalon; others make it *Ǵeledīya*, about 3 miles north of Karatīya.
Gaston, a castle to the north or north-west of Antioch; according to Rey it is Capt. Marmier's 'Château du Fils'; it clearly lay between Antioch and Portella.
Gaudii Mons, *Nebi Samwīl*, 5 miles north-west of Jerusalem.
Gerasa: see *Jerras* or *Jerash.*
Gistrum, according to Riant and Hagenmeyer *Hisn-el-Ǵisr*, the fortress which commands the bridge across the Orontes at Caesarea.

Hatab, *Ain-Tab*, north of Aleppo.
Hrom-gla: see *Ranculat, Rum-Kalah.*

Imbert, Casal: see *Casal Imbert.*

Jacob Vadum, the modern Bridge or Ford of Jacob's Daughters (*Ǵisr Banat Yakūb*), just to the south of the spot where the Jordan issues from the Waters of Meron.
Jerras (*Jerash, Gerasa*), 36 miles north-east of where the Jordan leaves the Dead Sea and 30 miles south-west of Adratum.

Kharput, or Kharpet, south of the Murad Su or Upper Euphrates, about 50 miles north-east of Melitone.
Kharrouba, El, probably the modern *Kharraibie*, about 10 miles south-east of Acre, and 7½ east of Haifa.

Liche, Laliche, *Laodicea.*
Lubieh, 6½ miles west of Tiberias.

Markab = Margat, north of Tortosa.
Medan (Campestria, or plain of) is apparently the plain or table-land adjoining Mezarib. In the map it has accidentally been marked as a town. L. Oliphant would identify it with the district south or south-west of Mezarib. There is a Wady el-Medan marked on the Palestine Exploration Fund's maps, at about 2 miles south-west of this town.
Mergesaphar, or Marcisophar vallis. The eastern Merǵ-es-Suffar lies, according to Wetzstein, near the north-west border of the Hauran in Ǵaulan. It was plainly between Salome and Damascus.
Messaara, probably the modern *Meshghurah*, about 17 miles east of Sidon to the west of the river Litany.
Mirabel, probably *Rās-el-Ain*, north-east of Jaffa and 3 miles north-west of Meǵdel Yaba, which has sometimes itself been identified with Mirabel.
Monethera Castle, the modern *El-Munaitira*, about 26 miles south of Tripoli.
Montana Nigra, or La Noire Montagne, the mountains to the north-west of Antioch, the modern Ǵebel Musa.
Montgisart, the modern *Tell Ǵezar*, 10 miles east of Ibelin.
Mont Parlier, the ancient *Mons Casius* and the modern *Ǵebel-el-Akra*, lying south of the Orontes at its mouth.

Natrōn, *Latrōn.*
Nebi Samwīl, or *Mar Samwīl*, north of Jerusalem.
Nigronis Mons, according to Rey the middle part of the Ansārīya Mountains, to the west of the middle Orontes.

Passe-Poulain, or *Polain*, a hill to the north of Casal Imbert.
Portella, on the coast about 5 miles north-east of Alexandria Minor.
Ptolemais, *Acre.*
Puy du Connestable, according to Rey the modern *Obreh*, between Nefin and Botrūn.

Rages or Rohas, *Edessa.*
Rames, *Ramla.*
Ranculat, the modern *Rum Kalah* on the Euphrates.
Rohas, *Edessa.*
Roob, Cavea: see *Cavea Roob.*
Rugia, Rusia, Rusa, Russa, Rodia, Rursa, &c., a city lying to the south or south-east of Albara, most probably to be identified with the modern *Rīha.* Hagenmeyer would identify Walter the Chancellor's *Rubea* with the modern Ruwiha.
Rugia, Vallis de, the modern canton or valley of *Er-Ruǵ.*

Safforie, Sepphoris, the modern *Sefforīya*, near Nazareth.
Salome, the modern *Sinamein*, 30 miles south of Damascus.
Sarmit, the modern *Sermin.*
Senesfil, according to Rey the modern *Sin-el-fil* on the Nahr Beirut.
Shobek, *Crac de Montréal.*
Soudin, Le, *Portus Sancti Simeonis*, the seaport of Antioch.
Subeibe, *Banias, Caesarea Philippi.*
Suet, terra Suet, Sueth, regio Suhite, &c. a vaguely defined district, seemingly, situated to the south of Nawā, and probably extending beyond the Yarmuk to the south and south-west of Mezarib. William of Tyre seems to make it extend as far east as Bostra. At the present day, according to L. Oliphant, the name has a more limited application, being confined to a district south of Mezarib. On the latest maps Ez-Zuweit is marked some 17 miles south of Adratum and somewhat less than this distance north-east of Gerasa (*Jerras*). Rey identifies it with the Ǵaulan.

Thil, or Til, or Tell Hamdūn, or Turo Militum, south of the river Ǵaihūn.
Toron des Chevaliers, *Latrōn.*
Trepessac Castle, *Derbesak*, north of Antioch.
Turbessel, *Tell Bashir.*
Turo Mons, or Mont Toron, the modern *Tell el Fokhkhār*, ¾ mile east of Acre.

Zora, about 40 miles south of Damascus and 10 miles east of Nawa.

LXXVII

WESTERN ASIA UNDER THE ABBĀSID CALIPHS (786)

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LXXVII

WESTERN ASIA UNDER THE ABBĀSID CALIPHS (786)

THIS map shows the Asiatic dominion of the Baghdād Caliphate at the time of its widest extent: its African complement is found in Map 4, where it is seen that the Abbāsid empire reached as far as the Atlantic Ocean. The date of the accession of the Caliph HĀRŪN ER-RASHĪD in 786 has been chosen, because it was, on the whole, the epoch of the greatest power of the Abbāsids, and because it permits comparison with the empire of Charles the Great, with whom Hārūn had diplomatic relations. But the extent of territory ruled by the Caliphs had not appreciably varied in Asia since 715, and the map may be taken as representing the period from 715 to 820 or even later, except that Baghdād was not founded until 762.

At the accession of the first Caliph (in Arabic, *Khalīfa*, 'successor') ABŪ-BEKR, on the death of the Prophet Mohammad in 632, the Saracens possessed no territory outside *Arabia*. In the following year, however, the 'Battle of the Chains' admitted them into *Chaldaea* (el-Irāk) and gave them the city of *el-Hīra*. In 634 the Battle of el-Wākūsa on the Yarmūk opened *Syria*; *Damascus* fell in 635; *Emesa*, *Antioch* and *Jerusalem* in 636; and the conquest of *Caesarea* completed the subjugation of Syria by 639. *Cyprus* was compelled to pay tribute in 649, and reconquered and garrisoned in 655–6. Meanwhile, further east, the victory of el-Kādisīya in 635 was followed by the capture of *el-Medāïn* (Seleucia-Ctesiphon); the cities of *el-Basra* and *el-Kūfa* were founded in 635 and 638; *el-Ahwāz* (Khūzistān) submitted, and all Mesopotamia up to *er-Ruhā* (Edessa), *Sumaisāt* (Samosate), and *Amid*, was overrun in 640, when the outposts against the Greeks were established at Marash and Malatīya. More in the north, *Armenia* with the cities of *Arzan* and *Bedlīs* was annexed in 641, and in 643 the Muslims pushed on to *Tiflīs* and through the province of *Arrān* to *Derbend* (Bāb el-Abwāb) on the border of the Khazars[1]. This was after the victory at Nihāwand in 642 had overthrown the Sāsānid dynasty and opened the way into *Persia*, most of which, from *Adharbaiǵān* to *Fārs*, *Kirmān*, and *Siǵistān*, was overrun in 643–645. *Naisābūr* and *Merv* fell in 652, and before 661 *Herāt*, *Kābul*, and *Ghazna* had been brought nominally under the Caliphs' rule; but these eastern parts, with *Bukhārā* (occupied in 674) and *Samarkand* (676), did not become a settled conquest till about 711. The furthest eastward extension took place in 715, when envoys from the Arab army in Farghāna entered *Kāshghar*, and about the same time an Arab general followed up the siege of Daibul (713) on the Indian Ocean by establishing a Mohammadan government at *Multān* (714). About the same date the mountainous tract on the southern shore of the Caspian (Gīlān, Tabaristān, and Ǵurǵān) was reduced to indifferent subjection.

On the west (see Map 4) the progress of the Saracens was slower. *Egypt* was conquered in 640–1, *Alexandria* falling to Amr in December 641. *Carthage* was not conquered till 693; and after pushing their arms as far as the Atlantic, the Saracens crossed into *el-Andalus* (Spain) in 710, and the Gothic kingdom fell with *Tulaitala* (Toledo) in 712. *Southern France* was invaded in 725, but after CHARLES MARTEL'S victory between Poitiers and Tours, in 732, the Muslims held only *Narbonne*, and that only till 759.

Thus at its widest the empire of the Caliphs extended from the Indus to the Atlantic and the Pyrenees, and from the Caspian to the Indian Ocean. But the overthrow of the Damascus dynasty of the Omayyad Caliphs by the Abbāsids in 750 was followed by the separation of el-Andalus, where the Omayyads founded an independent emīrate in 755. Thus the Abbāsid dominions ended at the straits of *Ǵebel Tārik* (Gibraltar), whereas the Omayyad dominions had included *Spain*. During the reign of Hārūn er-Rashīd a further diminution took place: the Idrīsids, who were of the Alid sect and repudiated the legitimacy of the Abbāsid caliphate, established an independent dynasty in *el-Maghrib* (Morocco) in 788. The rest of the North African coast was practically lost to the Abbāsids when the Aghlabids founded their dynasty at *Kayrawān* in 800. (See Map 4.) Thenceforward the dominions of the Caliphs became more and more absorbed by dynasties over which they had at the most an uncertain hierarchical influence.

In the preparation of this map I have received invaluable assistance from Mr. Guy Le Strange, whose large-scale sketch-maps and prolonged critical researches among the Arab geographies and itineraries have been most generously placed at my disposal. Many new lights have also been thrown upon the mediaeval course and topography of the Euphrates and Tigris valleys by his indispensable 'Description of Mesopotamia and Baghdād,' from the Arabic of Ibn Serapion, published in the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, 1895.

STANLEY LANE-POOLE.

[1] There are differences of a year or more among the Arab chroniclers as to many of the dates of conquest; some, no doubt, taking the first raid, others the settled annexation. There were frequent revolts in the early days of the conquest, and cities were often retaken.

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LXXVIII

WESTERN ASIA UNDER THE MOHAMMADAN DYNASTIES c. 970 AND c. 1070 A. D.

LXXVIII

WESTERN ASIA UNDER THE MOHAMMADAN DYNASTIES C. 970 AND C. 1070 A. D.

IN the preceding map (LXXVII) there was but one dynasty ruling over all Mohammadan Asia, the Abbāsid Caliphate: in the present map the Caliphate has disappeared, and its place is filled by a number of independent dynasties. As the authority of the Caliphs waned, the local governors gradually threw off their dependence upon Baghdād, and founded hereditary dynasties, which recognized indeed the Caliphs' spiritual title, but exercised unfettered power in their own dominions. After 945 the Abbāsid Caliph ceased to be master even in Baghdād, and from that date to 1160 no coins (the test of sovereignty) were struck there in his sole name.

The present map shows the divisions of the Mohammadan dynasties at two dates. The wash-colouring and the names in *blue* indicate dynasties ruling about A. D. 970; the *red* boundary line marks the extent of the Seljūk empire about 1070, and the names in *red* distinguish the dynasties reigning at that time. The changes that took place in the political divisions of Mohammadan Asia from the date of the preceding map to the Seljūk invasion can only be described briefly and in general terms[1].

Eastern Provinces. TĀHIR DHŪ-L-YEMĪNAIN was appointed by the Caliph EL-MAMŪN governor of the eastern provinces of the Caliphate in 820, and his dynasty of the Tāhirids (820–873) was the first to attain virtual independence. Their government extended over *Khurāsān*, *Siǵistān*, *Transoxiana* (*Mā-warā-n-nahr*), and *Khuwārizm*. They soon relapsed, however, into the position of ordinary governors dependent upon the Caliph, and their weakness enabled YA'KŪB IBN EL-LAITH to establish his dynasty, the Saffārids (867–903), in *Siǵistān* and *Herāt* in 867, to which he annexed *Kirmān* and *Fārs*, and the whole of *Khurāsān* and *Tukhāristān* as far as *Penǵhīr* on the eastern slope of the Hindū Kūsh, between 869 and 873; and occupied *Tabaristān* in 874, and *el-Ahwāz* in 876–7. His successors for a short time held the whole land from the Oxus to Ǵennābā on the Persian Gulf, and, though vanquished and dispossessed of their dominions by the Sāmānids in 903, their descendants continued to maintain their hold, sometimes as vassals, oftener as rebels, in their original territory of *Siǵistān* until the Mongol invasion of 1229. The Sāmānids (819–999), whose possessions in 970 are shown in the map, began as local governors in *Transoxiana* (at Samarkand, esh-Shāsh, Farghāna, and Ushrusāna) as early as 819 at least. On the fall of the Tāhirids they became the sovereign power beyond the Oxus, and in 903 ff. they added the Saffārid provinces of *Khurāsān*, *Ǵurǵān*, *Tabaristān*, *Siǵistān*, until by 925 their rule extended from Akhsīkath on the Jaxartes and Andarāba beside the Hindū Kūsh to Hamadhān, and from Khuwārizm on the Sea of Aral to Zarang. The rise of the Buwaihids drove them back from Hamadhān and er-Rayy to the Khurāsān frontier; but they retained the rest of their dominions until the close of the tenth century, when the Ghaznawids annexed their territories south of the Oxus (994–9), and the Ilak Khāns[1] of Kāshghar invaded Transoxiana, took Bukhārā (992), and extinguished the dynasty of the Sāmānids in 999.

Central Provinces. Whilst the Tāhirids and Saffārids were developing hereditary sovereignty in the east, several local rulers began to found small dynasties in the central provinces of the Caliphate. The Dulafids ruled in *el-Ǵibal* (Kurdistān) from c. 825 to 898; the Saǵids in *Adharbaiǵān* from 879 to c. 930; whilst *Tabaristān*, never completely subdued by the Caliphs, still harboured its ancient rulers the Ispehbedhs (660–1597), and the Bāwendid chiefs of *Firrīm* (665–1349); and supported at *Amul* and *Sārīya* a series of Alids (864–928), descendants of the prophet Mohammad, who repudiated the legitimacy of the Abbāsid Caliphate. The first great dynasty of the central provinces was that of the Buwaihids (932–1055), who originated

[1] The exact boundaries in any given year are seldom ascertainable, especially in the tenth century, when rival dynasties were constantly encroaching on each other, and an important city or province might be annexed in one year and recovered by its former possessor in the following year. Tabaristān, for example, changed hands five times in the tenth century, between the Buwaihids, Sāmānids, and Ziyārids; and the cities and districts of Central Persia (about er-Rayy and Hamadhān) were in a perpetual state of flux. The relations of the dynasties to each other also varied: sometimes they were rivals, sometimes one was the vassal of the other, as is proved by their coinage. Further, the information concerning some of the outlying provinces, such as Mukrān, Kirmān, Khuwārizm, and Shīrwān, is often too meagre or uncertain to justify definite statements. The general outlines, however, of the dynastic divisions represented in the map are fairly established by the evidence of the coins and the statements of the Arabic chroniclers.

[1] The territorial limits of the Ilak Khāns are too uncertain to be laid down in the map. The Ghaznawids belong rather to the map of India and Afghānistān.

PATZINAKS
KINGDOM OF THE KHAZARS
BAHR BUNTUS
BAHR EL-KHAZAR
BYZANTINE EMPIRE
Thema Chersonesus
Constantinopolis
Nicaea
Nicomedia
Prusa
Amorium
Iconium
Caesarea
Tarsus
Malatia
Marash
Sumaisat
Antioch
Apamea
Maarra
Tarabulus
Baalbekk
Damascus
Dimashk
Hauran
Busrah
Dunyat
Er-Ramla
Ashkalan
Ghuzza
El-Farama
El-Fustat (Misr)
Aila
Tur
Mons Sinai
Aidhab
Kus
Kosseir
Tenhe
El-Gara
Medina
Mekka
Cudda
Tarfa
Jidda
Ammah
Tadmur (Palmyra)
Er-Rahba
Er-Rakka
Harran
Edessa
Samosata
Melitene
Kharput
Arzan
Khilat
Van
Bitlis
Tiflis
Gangra
Ancyra
Sebast
Trapezus
Amisus
Sinope
Shamlakh
Shirwan
Bab-el-abwab (Derbend)
Shabiran
Baku
Ardabil
Tebriz
Khoi
Salmas
Urumiyah
Shiz
Zenjan
Abhar
Kazwin
Tabaristan
Gurgan
Astarabad
Dihistan
Nisa
Abivard
Merv
Sarakhs
Tus
Nishapur
Meshhed
Radhkan
Damghan
Simnan
Bistam
Semnan
Khar
Sawah
Veramin
Hamadhan
Kumm
Kashan
Ispahan (Gay)
Sabur
Shiraz
Istakhr (Persepolis)
Tustar
Askar Mukrim
Ramhurmuz
Ahwaz
Jundai Sabur
Ed-Dauraq
Arrajan
Abarkuh
Yezd
Kutha (Yezd)
Bardasir
Bs-Siragan (Kirman)
Nubendijan
Fasa
Darabjird
Bamm
Jiruft
Sirjan
Kuhbanan
Narmashir
Kerman
Zarang
Sarwan
Kandahar
Farah
Bust
Ghazna
Kabul
Bamiyan
Balkh
Guzgan
Shaburkan
Andkhui
Tukharistan
Zabulistan
Parshawar
Multan
Khuttal
Badakhshan
Ishkashm
Zebak
Wakhan
Tirmidh
Es-Saghaniyan
Khulm
Walwalij
Samarkand
Bukhara
Karshi
Nakhshab
Kesh
Usrushana
Ferghana
Khujenda
Uzkend
Akhsikath
Isfijab
Barkuk
Tash-Shash
Dabusiya
Karmaniya
Tashkend
Isfijab
Nahr Sihun (Jaxartes)
Farab (Otrar)
Khuwarizm
El Gurganiya (Kuhna)
Buhaira
Khuwarizm
Nahr Balkh (Amul)
Firebr
Amul
Mihr
Sarakhs
Merv
Meshhed
Nishapur
Tus

among the Shi'ites of the *Dailem* (Ǵīlān), and thence spread in fifteen years over the *Ǵibāl, Fārs, Kirmān, el-Ahwāz*, and *el-Irāk*, until they occupied the seat of the Caliphate, *Baghdād* itself, in 945, exacted tribute from el-Mōsil and other parts of *Mesopotamia*, annexed *Tabaristān* and *Ǵurǵān* in the north (947), and crossing the Persian Gulf made the emīr of *Omān* their vassal. The Buwaihids lost the Ǵibāl first—Hamadhān to the Kākwaihids in 1023 and Ispahān to the Ghaznawids in 1029; but their principal territories, stretching from Kirmān to el-Irāk, inclusive of both, remained in their possession until the Seljūk conquest in 1055–6. Contemporary with the Buwaihids, the Ziyārids (928–1042) established their power in *Tabaristān* and *Ǵurǵān* (928–31) and for a short time over the *Ǵibāl* (Hamadhān, Hulwān, Ispahān) till expelled by their stronger rivals, after which the Ziyārids ruled (with a break 979–988) the Caspian provinces from Ǵurǵān to Ǵīlān until their final dispossession by the Ghaznawids in 1042. Kurdish tribes held the mountain district east of the Tigris, and at times extended into the neighbouring provinces. The Kurd family of the Hasnawaihids (959–1015) held various towns (Hamadhān, Dīnawar, Nihāwend, Sābūr-Khawāst) in the *Ǵibāl*, but generally as vassals of the Buwaihids. The Marwānid Kurds are mentioned lower down.

West of the Caspian the minor dynasty of the Sallārids (or Musāfirids, 941–1062) ruled *Adharbīǵān*, with interruptions by the Buwaihids, Kurds, and Russians (943); in 1029 their dominions had so much expanded as to include Zenǵān, Abhar, and Shahrzūr, but in the following year they became vassals of the Ghaznawids, and in 1052 of the Seljūks, who deposed them finally in 1062. The Sheddādids governed *Arrān* from 951 to 1076, and, after this province was annexed by the Seljūks, they continued at *Ani* in *Armenia* from 1072 to 1161, the northern part of which was the seat in the tenth century of the Ǵa'farids of *Tiflīs*. Still further north, in *Shīrwān* the Mesīdids (800–1067) seem to have formed an obscure dynasty.

Mesopotamia and Northern Syria. Here the Arab tribes, who had never been docile subjects of the Caliphate, acquired independence. The Hamdānids or Benū Ḥamdān (904–979), appointed to the government of el-Mōsil in 904, extended their authority over *Diyār-Rabī'a, Diyār-Bekr*, and *el-Irāk*. Of two famous brothers, NĀSIR-ED-DAULA (929–68) ruled Mesopotamia from Mayyāfārkīn to el-Basra, and was paramount at Baghdād, whilst SAIF-ED-DAULA (944–67) conquered *Syria* from the Ikhshīdids (944–5), and from el-Massīsa and Tarsus waged war upon the Greeks[1]. After their death the Hamdānids dwindled rapidly; the Fātimids occupied Syria in 969, and the Buwaihids seized Mesopotamia (977–9); and, though the Hamdānids succeeded in recovering el-Mōsil in 1001, they only held it for two years. The Buwaihids did not retain the direct government of Mesopotamia, but exercised a species of suzerainty over the Okailids or Benū Okail (990–1096), who, after pasturing for centuries in the Euphrates valley, obtained the cities of Nisībīn (990) and el-Mōsil (996), and the rest of *Lower Mesopotamia*, as far as el-Kūfa; and eventually added er-Rakka (1070) and *Aleppo* (1079), which they took from the Mirdasids, an Arab family who held *Northern Syria* from 1023 to 1079, with intervals of reconquest by the Fātimids. The Seljūks put an end to the Okailid power in 1096, and at the same time dispossessed the Marwānids (990–1096), a Kurd dynasty, who had governed *Diyār-Bekr* (Arzen, Mayyāfārkīn, Amid, Keyfā) since the fall of the Hamdānids, but (like the Okailids) generally as vassals of the Buwaihids. The Mazyādids (1012–1150) of el-Hilla, though of small territorial possessions, were an Arab clan of considerable power in *el-Irāk*; and the chiefs of the Baṭāih (or 'swamps' of the lower Euphrates) were strong enough to annex el-Basra in 1000.

Arabia. The Ziyādids or Benū Ziyād (819–1018) formed an independent dynasty at *Zebīd* and ruled a large part of the *Yemen*; the Ya'furids (861–997) established their power at *San'a* and *Ǯened*; the Neǵāhids (1021–1158) followed the Ziyādids at Zebīd; and the Sulaihids (1037–1101) ruled at San'a and for a time held also Zebīd and all the Yemen (1063–88). At Sa'da a line of Rassid Imams had their seat. In Omān the Benū Weǵīh were succeeded by governors who recognized (before 965) the supremacy of the Buwaihids. The Karmatids (900–988), a religious sect, who obtained possession of the *Baḥrain* by 900, carried their propaganda over all Arabia, levying blackmail on the pilgrims' caravans, and on Damascus, taking and plundering el-Basra (923), Mekka (930), el-Kūfa repeatedly (932, &c.), Damascus (971–3), and exacting tribute from Omān (931 and onwards). Their power departed soon after the accession of their co-religionists the Fātimids to the dominions of Egypt, the holy cities of the Ḥiǵāz, and Syria, in 969–70[1].

The Seljūk or Selǵūk Turkmāns, after serving under the Sāmānids, took possession of Khurāsān in 1038, and thence spread over Ǵurǵān, Tabaristān, Khuwārizm, the Ǵibāl, and Kirmān in 1041–3, occupied Baghdād in 1055, and had won the whole country (enclosed in the *red* line in the map) from the Hindū Kūsh to the Mediterranean by 1071, except Damascus, which fell in 1078. Their annexation of Mesopotamia in 1096 has been mentioned above; their conquests in Asia Minor (beginning with their advance to *Ani* in 1064) belong chiefly to the next map.

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[1] The frontier between the Muslims and the Greeks was subject to frequent changes and was perpetually overrun by raids from either side. This debatable land is indicated in the map by *yellow shading*. Between 964 and 976 Nicephorus Phocas and John Tzimisces reconquered Antioch and Edessa and most of Northern Syria.

[1] Egypt and Syria were governed by the dynasty of the Tūlūnids (868–905), and after an interval by the Ikhshīdids (935–969), who were displaced by the Fātimids, a dynasty of Shi'ite Caliphs, who subdued Barbary in 909 and ruled Egypt from 969 to 1171.

WESTERN ASIA AT THE TIME OF SALADIN, A.D. 1190

LXXIX

WESTERN ASIA AT THE TIME OF SALADIN, A.D. 1190

1. **The Seljūks.** The widest extent of the Seljūk Empire, when united under ALP ARSLĀN, is shown by the red line in Plate LXXVIII. In the twelfth century that empire broke into fragments, of which but three survived at the date of the present map, and only one of these held actual power. The main line, or Great Seljūks (1037–1157), came to an end with the death of Singar in 1157. One branch line, the Seljūks of Kirmān (1041–1187), held their remote province until 1187, when they were deposed by the Ghuzz Turkmāns, whose inroads had caused havoc throughout Eastern and Northern Persia and in the Caspian regions. The true successors of the main line, the Seljūks of el-Irāk (1117–1194), reigned over *Central and Western Persia*, and often over part of *Mesopotamia* including *Baghdād*, through most of the twelfth century, but their power gradually fell into the hands of their ministers, the Atābegs of Adharbaiǵān, till at the date of the map the Seljūk Sultān had become a mere figure-head to the Atābegs' kingdom, as is indicated by the brown border round the Seljūk colour. The Seljūks of Syria had given way to other Atābegs, and the only branch of the once great empire which retained its vigour was that which ruled in Asia Minor. The Seljūks of Rūm (1085–1307, Rūm being the usual Arabic term for the East Roman Empire) began their invasion of Asia Minor when the victory of Melazgerd had thrown open the country in 1071. After the conquest of Antioch in 1085, they pushed their way as far as *Nicaea*, and, though beaten back by the advance of the Crusaders at the close of the century, they still held all the centre of Asia Minor (Phrygia, Cappadocia, and Galatia, with parts of Pontus and Paphlagonia), leaving but a strip of coast on three sides to the Byzantine Empire and the Kingdom of Lesser Armenia. This dominion they continued to hold and enlarge until the Mongol invasion assisted the growing tendency to subdivision, and, of the minor states which succeeded the Seljūks in Rūm, one developed into the Othmānli Empire.

2. **The Atābegs.** (*a*) *In Syria and Mesopotamia.* As the power of the Great Seljūks grew weaker, their generals and regents (Atābegs)—all slaves by origin—formed independent dynasties. The earliest was that of the Būrids, Atābegs of Damascus (1103–1154), whose vezīr Muīn-ed-dīn Anar governed Central Syria during the reigns of five successive masters in the second quarter of the twelfth century, and had diplomatic relations with the Latin kings of Jerusalem. The Zengids (1127–1250), Atābegs of el-Mōsil and eventually of all Mesopotamia and trans-Jordanic Syria, were the most serious adversaries the Crusaders encountered before the advance of Saladin. The founder of the dynasty, IMĀD-ED-DĪN ZENGĪ, the son of a Turkish slave of the Seljūk Melik Shāh, rose from minor governments to that of el-Mōsil in 1127, to which he added Singār, Nasībīn, and Ǵezirat-ibn-Omar, and thus became master of the whole of Upper Mesopotamia, except where the Ortukid Turkmāns (1101–1408) reigned at Māridīn and Hisn Kaifa, &c., and where the Count of Edessa held the Christian marches. In 1128 Zengī annexed Aleppo and Northern Syria; gradually consolidated his dominion from Hamāh in Syria to Shahrzūr by the mountains of Kurdistān; and in December 1144 took Edessa from Joscelin de Courtenay. On Zengī's death in 1146 his dominions were divided: his elder son took Mesopotamia, and his younger, the celebrated NŪR-ED-DĪN, took Northern Syria and Edessa. The Atābegs of el-Mōsil (1127–1233), descended from Zengī, lasted till the Mongol invasion, with their branches, the Atābegs of Singār (1170–1220) and the Atābegs of el-Ǵezīra (1180–1250). The Atābegs of Syria (1146–1181) consisted of Nūr-ed-dīn and his son; the former took Damascus from the Būrids in 1154, extended his boundaries to the north nearly as far as Marash, and by his campaigns against the King of Jerusalem obtained Bāniyās (Belinas) and a few fortresses, but did not materially change the frontier-line between the Franks and the Muslims, which was still formed roughly by the Jordan, Lebanon, and Orontes. His successor, after a brief interval, was Saladin.

(*b*) *In Persia.* The principal dynasty that succeeded in the twelfth century to the Seljūk power was that of the Atābegs of Adharbaiǵān (1136–1225), which so completely absorbed its nominal masters' authority that in 1182 the Arabic historian describes the Atābeg el-Pehlewān as lord of el-Ǵibāl, er-Rayy, Hamadhān, Ispahān, Adharbaiǵan, and Arrān, though the Seljūk TUGHRIL was still the nominal Sultān. On his death in 1194 the Atābegs occupied in name the territory they had long held in effect. The western boundary is uncertain, as the Caliphate had now acquired some territorial power, and was frequently aggressive towards the north and east. Further south, the Selgharid Atābegs (1148–1287) ruled Fārs; but minor dynasties, probably more

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or less subordinate to their authority, sprang up at Yezd and in Lāristān (1148–1339). At Khilāt in Armenia the Shāh-Armen founded a dynasty of some importance (1100–1207); and there were small independent rulers in Tabaristān, Lūristān, and elsewhere.

3. **The Khuwārizm-Shāhs.** The dynasty that played the chief part in Persia at the end of the twelfth and beginning of the thirteenth century was that of the Khuwārizm-Shāhs (c. 1077–1231), which originated, like most of its rivals, from a slave-governor of the Seljūk MELIK SHĀH, and gradually spread from its original seat of government at *Gurganj* in *Khuwārizm* across the Oxus to the Jaxartes, then southwards to Khurāsān on the decay of the Great Seljūks, and eventually over the greater part of Persia, together with Bukhārā, Samarkand, Ghazna, and Otrār, ousting the Atābegs of Adharbaiǵān, and making the rest tributary. The Khuwārizm-Shāhs utterly collapsed upon the invasion of Chingiz Khān in 1220, though the last prince, ĠELĀL-ED-DĪN, held out in Adharbaiǵān from 1225 to 1231.

4. **The Ayyūbids.** The founder of the dynasty of the Ayyūbids (1169–1341), SALĀH-ED-DĪN YŪSUF IBN AYYŪB, commonly called SALADIN, was a Kurdish officer in the service of the Atābeg Nūr-ed-dīn of Damascus. After the annexation of *Egypt* by Nūr-ed-dīn's forces in 1169, Saladin became its practically independent governor; in 1173 he conquered part of the *Sūdān*, in 1174 he occupied the *Yemen* in Arabia, and in the same year, after Nūr-ed-dīn's death, he annexed *Damascus* and most of Syria, except *Aleppo* (which he did not acquire till 1182) and the coast country held by the Christian princes. In 1182–3 he subdued *Mesopotamia*, except the city of el-Mōsil, whose Atābeg, however, became his vassal in 1186. In 1187 Saladin began a war of extermination against the Latin Kingdom (the stages of the war are shown in the inset map of Syria). The victory of Hittīn, near Tiberias, on July 4, opened all *Palestine* to him, and by the end of the year the whole of the *Kingdom of Jerusalem*, with the Holy City itself, had fallen into his hands, with the exception of Tyre and the isolated fortresses of Karak, Mont Réal (Shaubak), Belvoir (Kaukab), Safed, Château Neuf (Hūnīn), and Belfort (Shakīf Arnūn). In 1188 he conquered most of the northern coastland *between Tortosa and Baghrās*, except Tripolis, Markab, and Antioch. The Third Crusade compelled him to relinquish a strip of coast from Jaffa to Sarafenda, but otherwise left his power unimpaired. Saladin died in 1193. His family reigned in Egypt till 1252, in Syria till 1260 (at Hamāh till 1341), in Mesopotamia till 1245, and in Arabia (Yemen) till 1228. Their dominions fell partly to the Mamlūks and partly to the Mongols.

STANLEY LANE-POOLE.

LXXX

WESTERN ASIA UNDER THE MONGOLS, A.D. 1330

LXXX

WESTERN ASIA UNDER THE MONGOLS, A.D. 1330

1. THE invasions of the Mongols in the thirteenth century completely changed the map of Asia. Temuǵīn, the young chief of a clan north of the great desert of Gobi, succeeded, after thirty years' struggle, in subjugating the tribes of Central Asia, from the river Irtish to the Kinggan Mountains, and being then (1206) proclaimed supreme sovereign, with the title of CHINGIZ KAĀN, began the career of conquests, of which the south-west portion alone comes within the limits of the accompanying map. After the submission of the Uighur tribes, and the annexation of the Turkish Gūrkāns' kingdom of Karā-Khitāi in Eastern Turkistān, he crossed the Sir Daryā (Saihūn, Iaxartes), and conquered *Khuwārizm* in 1220. Immense brigades of Mongols swept severally over *Khorāsān* and *Afghānistān; Adharbaiǵān, Georgia,* and *South Russia;* and China; and, before his death in 1227, the armies of Chingiz had spread east and west to the Yellow Sea and the Euxine. His sons and grandsons continued his conquests, and for the present purpose three main divisions must be distinguished[1]:

(i.) **The Golden Horde** of Kipchāk (1227–1502), ruled by the descendants of Ǵūǵī, the eldest son of Chingiz. Spreading westward, under the leading of BĀTŪ KHĀN, son of Ǵūǵī, the Golden Horde entered Poland in 1241, took Cracow and Breslau; defeated the Grand Duke Henry and a force of Poles, Germans, and Knights Templars at *Liegnitz*, April 9, and King Bela of Hungary at *Mohi on the Sajó*, April 11; sacked Littau, Brünn, Ofen, and Gran, and even reached Wiener Neustadt; whilst not only Moravia and Hungary were devastated, but incursions were made south into Roumania and Wallachia, and west through Croatia to the Adriatic (1242). Returning to the steppes (*desht*) of *Kipchāk*, the Ǵūǵids ruled the Khānate of the Golden Horde, of which the western branch or Blue Horde (1227–1359), from its capital at *Serāi* on the Volga, dominated Russia; and the White Horde, seated at *Sighnāk* by the Sir Daryā, camped over Eastern Kipchāk, and eventually united (1378–1391) the Blue Horde under its rule, until, after a century of anarchy, both succumbed to Russia in 1502. The Golden Horde was the parent of the Khānate of Astrakhān (1466–1554); and from Ǵūǵī, through another son, also descended the Khānates of the Krīm or Crimea (1420–1783), of Kazan (1438–1552), and of Kazimov (1450–1678); and, through a third son, the two Khānates of Bukhārā (c. 1500–1868) and Khīva (c. 1515–1872).

(ii.) **The Īl-Khāns of Persia** (1256–1344). Whilst the sons of Ǵūǵī established their power in the Desht Kipchāk and threatened Europe, other Mongol armies were pressing westward into Asia Minor. (For the political divisions of Asia Minor in 1210, see Plate LXXIV.) For seven years they were resisted by the last of the Khuwārizm Shāhs, ǴELĀL-ED-DĪN Mangbarnī, who, after the overthrow of his father's realm, ended his adventurous journeys from Khuwārizm to India, and India to Persia, by a determined stand in *Adharbaiǵān*. After his death in 1231, the Mongols ravaged Armenia and Northern Mesopotamia, took Ganǵa in Arrān in 1233, and traversed Shīrwān to Derbend in 1235. In 1243 they defeated the Seljūk Sultān of Rūm at *Arzenǵān*, and thenceforward the Seljūks became mere vassals under Mongol regents. In 1244–1245 Mongol armies swept over Mesopotamia and Northern Syria, but the permanent occupation of the western provinces did not begin till HŪLĀGŪ KHĀN, grandson of Chingiz, crossed the Oxus in 1256, and undertook the steady subjugation of Persia, which culminated in the taking of *Baghdād* in 1258 and the murder of the Abbāsid Caliph. In 1259–1260 Hūlāgū reduced all *Mesopotamia* and *Syria*, from Khilāt to Gaza, banishing or making vassals of the remnants of the Ayyūbid, Zengid, and Ortukid dynasties, until his progress was finally arrested by the defeat of a Mongol army on September 3, 1260, at *Ain Ǵālūd* (Goliath's Spring), near Mount Tabor, by Kutuz, the third of the Bahrī Māmlūk Sultāns of Egypt (1250–1390), who had supplanted Saladin's successors at Cairo. This decisive victory drove the Mongols back behind the Euphrates; and an alliance between Baibars of Egypt and Baraka of the Golden Horde preserved the territories of the Mamlūks from the invaders. Hūlāgū and his successors, the Īl-Khāns, ruled *Persia, Mesopotamia, and part of Asia Minor*, from the Oxus to the Halys and the Euphrates, for nearly ninety years. The States they found were either made vassals or extinguished. The Luluids, successors of the Zengids at Mōsil, were deposed in 1260; the princess Abish, last of the Selgharid Atābegs of Fārs, was married to Hūlāgū's son in 1266, and the dynasty ended at her death in 1287; but the Ortukids at *Māridīn* and the

[1] For a full account of the various branches of the Mongols, based upon Sir H. H. Howorth's *History*, see my *Mohammadan Dynasties*, 205–242; and for their invasion of Hungary, G. Strakosch-Grassmann, *Der Einfall der Mongolen in Mitteleuropa.*

Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

Fazlwaihids of *Lāristān* continued to reign, as vassal States, and survived their conquerors. The little dynasty of the Kalhātids (1242–1510), of *Hormuz*, also held the greater part of the opposite coast of *Omān*.

(iii.) **The Chaghatāi Khāns** (1227–1358). Chaghatāi, the second son of Chingiz, inherited the province of *Transoxiana* (Mā-warā-n-nahr) with some tracts north of the Sir Daryā, and Northern Afghānistān, whence the Mongols raided the Panjāb and took *Lahore* in 1242. They did not hold India, however, and their capital was at Samarkand, where they ruled in some obscurity until the rise of Tīmūr.

2. **The Successors of the Īl-Khāns.** At the date of the principal map, 1330, these three great western branches of the Mongol Empire shared Asia and South-east Europe from the Himālayas to the Balkans; but the central branch, that of the Īl-Khāns of Persia, was already breaking up, and after the death of Abū-Saīd in 1335 their dominions fell into the hands of rival chiefs, and the dynasties shown in the inset map were formed. Of these the most important was that of the Ġelairs (1336–1411) in *Mesopotamia*, *Kurdistān*, *Adharbaiǵān*, and *Armenia*, temporarily dispossessed by Tīmūr in 1393, and finally superseded by the Karā-Kuyunli or Turkmāns of the Black Fleece (1378–1469), who had acquired the chief power in the South of *Armenia*, and took *Baghdād* from the Ġelairs in 1411; giving place, however, in 1469 to the rival tribe of the Āk-Kuyunli or White Fleece (1378–1502). The Muzaffarids (1313–1387) began as governors of Yezd under the Īl-Khāns, but 'on their masters' decay annexed *Kirmān* in 1340, and, after a contest with the Inchū chiefs, possessed themselves of the whole of *Fārs* in 1353, and *Isfahān* in 1356, which they held until the irruption of Tīmūr. The Sarbadārids (1337–1381) and Kerts of Herāt (1245–1389) divided *Khorāsān* between them: the latter became vassals of Tīmūr in 1381, and disappeared in 1389.

3. **The Successors of the Seljūks in Rūm (Anatolia).** The Seljūk Sultāns of Asia Minor continued to be the mere puppets of Mongol regents throughout the second half of the thirteenth century, and the dynasty came to an end in 1307, though a Seljūk prince maintained a piratical independence at *Sinope* for another half-century (until 1356). The Mongol hold upon the distant provinces of Asia Minor was weak, and a number of minor dynasties succeeded to the Seljūk power in Anatolia. These were the Ten Emīrates of Karasi in *Mysia*, Sārū Khān and Aidīn in *Lydia*, Menteshā in *Caria*, Tekka in *Lycia* and *Pamphylia*, Hamīd in *Pisidia*, Karamān in *Lycaonia and Western Galatia*, Kermiyān in *Western Phrygia*, Kizl-Ahmadli in *Paphlagonia*, and Othmānli in *Phrygia Epictetus*. The Othmanlis, or Ottoman Sultāns, took *Prusa* (Bursa, Brūsa) in 1326, defeated the Emperor Andronicus at *Pelecanon* in 1329, captured *Nicaea* in 1330, and, having thus acquired *Bithynia*, proceeded to absorb Karasi in 1336, and the rest of the ten Emīrates between 1382 and 1393. The invasion of Tīmūr and his defeat of the Othmānli Sultān Bāyezīd I ('Bajazet') at *Angora* on July 20, 1402, were followed by the restoration of seven of the deposed Emīrates (but not Karasi or Hamīd) by the conqueror; but the Othmānlis recovered them in 1426–1428, except Karamān, the most powerful of their rivals, which they did not reconquer until 1471. The later development of the Ottoman Empire belongs to other maps (see Plates LXXXI, LXXXII).

4. **The Invasion of Tīmūr.** TĪMŪR'S (or Tamerlane's) irruption at the close of the fourteenth century disturbed all existing States within his reach, but left no permanent impress west of Persia. The principal events in his campaigns must be briefly noted. Tīmūr began his career as governor of his native town of Kish in 1360, conquered Balkh, Bukhārā, and Samarkand, and became Gūrkān of Transoxiana in 1370 (retaining, however, a representative of Chingiz Kaān's line as nominal sovereign). He annexed Khuwārizm, 1378, Khorāsān, 1380–1381, Siǵistān or Nīmrūz, and Kandahār, 1383–1384, Northern Persia, 1385, Adharbaiǵān, Arrān, and Armenia, 1386, receiving also the submission of Gīlān and Shīrwān; and carried his arms across from Mūsh to Isfahān, Fārs, Kirmān, and Lāristān in 1387. The kingdom of the Īl-Khāns and their successors was now almost subdued, and he turned to the north, advanced to Sighnāk, 1389, entered Moghulistān, 1390, ascended the Volga to near *Serāi* and defeated Tōktāmish, the Khān of the Golden Horde, 1391. Returning south to finish the subjugation of Persia, he occupied Mazandārān, 1392, entered *Baghdād* (expelling the Ġelairs), 1393, overran Mesopotamia up to Āmid and Arzen, 1393–1394, and again won a victory over Tōktāmish by the river *Terek*, and pursued the Golden Horde as far as Astrakhān (Hāǵǵ Tarkhān), 1395; thence he pushed on to the Don and the Dnieper, and penetrated to *Moscow*, returning by Azak (Azov) and the Caucasus to Samarkand. In 1398 he followed his son, Pīr Mohammad (who had taken Kunduz, Kābul, and Multān), into India, and took *Dehli* in person; but in 1399 he again marched west, entered Rūm and razed Sīwās, 1400, overran Syria and captured Damascus in the same year, and then, passing by Baghdād (whence he expelled the restored Ġelairs), 1401, advanced through Kaisarīya to *Angora*, where he defeated and made prisoner the Othmānli Sultān Bāyezīd, 1402, and restored the deposed Emīrates. Tīmūr's progress was arrested only at the Aegean coast, where he took *Smyrna* from the Knights of St. John, 1402. Having received tribute from the Eastern Emperor and homage from the Mamlūk Sultān of Egypt, he returned through Persia to Samarkand in 1404, and was on his way to conquer China when death overtook him at Otrār, February 17, 1405.

Tīmūr's vast campaigns made him temporarily master of an empire that stretched *from Dehli to Smyrna, and from Lake Balkhāsh to the Persian Gulf*, but his occupation was too brief for settled organization. On his death, the Othmānlis began to recover *Asia Minor*, the Ġelairs and Turkmāns regained their former power in *Mesopotamia and Adharbaiǵān*, and the Mamlūks returned to *Syria*. His descendants, the Tīmūrids, however, remained masters of *Persia, Afghānistān*, and *Transoxiana*, and maintained their rule for nearly a century.

5. **Persian Geography.** In this map the Arabic orthography of names is retained, as in preceding maps; but it must be observed that, side by side with the Arabic, there had long been a Persian nomenclature which gradually superseded the Arabic in Persia itself, and even in 1330 was probably in more general use than the other. The Arabic names at this period are to some extent preserved in the travels of Ibn-Batūta, begun in 1325, and written in 1355. For the Persian there is the contemporary Hamd-Allah Mustaufī whose geographical work (the *Nuzhet-el-kulūb*), written in 1339, has been carefully examined by Mr. Le Strange

for the present map, both in the British Museum manuscripts and the Bombay text. The results are specially valuable in establishing the provincial divisions of the Persian kingdom, on which the Arab geographers are vague and contradictory. Hamd-Allah belonged to an official family. His great-grandfather was Mustaufi or revenue-officer of Irāk. His brother was chief of the dīvān of Rashīd-ed-dīn Fazl-Allah, the vezīr of the Mongol Īl-Khān Ghāzān, and the vezīr and his son were successively patrons of Hamd-Allah himself. His statements therefore have the authority of official statistics. The following list of provinces, with the towns included in each, is selected from Hamd-Allah; he gives many more names, but some are carelessly written and not easy to identify. The names are spelt as written in the Persian manuscripts, and the first town named in each province was its capital.

LIST OF PROVINCES.

Irāk Arab. Towns: Baghdād, Basra, Wāsit, Nomanīya, Nīl, Dair-Akūl, Kūfa, Hilla, Hīra, Bābil, Nahr-Mālik, Rūmīya and Madāïn, Muhawwal, Anbār, Hīt, Hadītha, Āna, Nahrawān, Bakūbā, Shahrabān, Zengiābād, Khānikīn, Hulwān, Ḳasr-Shīrīn, Ḍakūk, Tekrīt, Sāmarra, Kādisīya; with the districts of Duǵail, Sadrain, and Khālis.

Irāk Aǵam: Isfahān, Yezd, Maibud, Nāyin, Fīrūzān, Lūrkān, Idhaǵ (or Māl-Emīr), Arūǵ (or Sūsan), Saimara, Khurramābād, Karaǵ-Abī-Dulaf, Ǵūrbādakān (or Gulpaigān), Natanz, Ardistān, Kāshān, Dāliǵān, Buruǵird, Nihāvend, Hamadān, Asadābād, Kharrakānain (district), Sāva, Kum, Verāmīn, Ray, Tihrān, Mazdakān, Darguzīn, Ava, Abhar, Kazvīn, Rūdbar, Alamūt, Tālikān (district), Sarǵahān (or Saīn-Kala), Sultānīya, Suhraverd, Suǵas, Zenǵān, Khūnā (or Kaghaz-Kunān), and Tarum (district). It includes Great and Little *Lūr* or *Lūristān*.

Azarbāigān: Tebrīz, Uǵān (or Shahr-i-Islām), Ardabīl, Sirāv, Ahār, Dizmār, Urdūbād, Nakhchevān, Taruǵ, Khūi, Selmās, Archāk, Urmīya, Ushnūya, Peshvā, Dih-Khuwārikīn, Marāgha, Marend, Miyāniǵ, and the districts of Garmrūd and Khalkhal.

Mūghān: Baǵarwān, Barzend, Pīlwār, Mahmūdābād.

Arrān: Bailukān, Bardaa, Ganǵa.

Shīrwān: Shamākhī, Kabala, Bākūya, Fīrūzkubād.

Gurǵistan and *Abkhāz*: Tiflīs, Allān, Anī, Khunān, Kars.

Rūm: Sīwās, Abulustīn, Ankira, Arzenǵān, Erzen-er-Rūm, Akserā, Akshehr, Amāsiya, Antākiya, Bāibirt, Khartbirt, Shehra, Sāmsūn, Ammūriya, Kālikalā, Kara-Hisār, Kastamūnīya, Kumanāt, Kōniya, Kaisarīya, Kāt, Kemākh, Gul, Lulua, Malatīya, Niksār, Hūshyār, Karamān (district), Tuzaghāǵ, Ziyārat-Bāzār, Kavāk, Kūsh-Hisār, Shehr-Hisār, Kuluniya, Malakubiya. (Some of these names, as Kuluniya and Kara-Hisār, appear to be merely Roman and Turkish synonyms.)

Great Armenia: Akhlāt (Khilāt), Arǵīsh, Hangāmābād, Khōshāb, Melāzgird, Vān, Vastān, Velāsgird.

Ǵezīra, including Diyār-Bekr and Diyār-Rabīa: Mōsil, Irbil, Imādīya, Ǵezīrat-Ibn-Omar, Hisn-Kaifā, Sāird, Arzen, Mūsh, Maiyāfārkīn, Āmid, Mārdīn, Nasībīn, Ras-el-Ain, Ruhā, Harrān, Rakka, Sinǵar, Karkīsiyā, Khābūr (district).

Kurdistān: El-Anī, Dīnawar, Vastām, Kanguwar, Harsīn, Kirmānshāhān, Mahidasht, Kirind, Derbend, Sultānābād, Shahrzūr.

Khūzistān: Shūstar (or Tūstar), Ǵunday-Shāpūr, Dīzfūl, Sūs, Hawīza, Askar-Mukram, Tarāzak, Ahwāz, Rāmhurmuz.

Fārs: Shīrāz, Kūmisha, Yezdikhwāst, Abāda, Abarkūh, Iklīd, Māyin, Istakhr, Harāt, Sarvistān, Fasā, Fīrūzābād, Ǵahrum, Sīrāf, Kāzirūn, Khisht, Kumārīǵ, Shāpūr, Nubendigān, Ǵennāba, Hindiǵān, Arraǵān, Sīmkān, Sebzivār, Sīnīz, and islands of Khārik and Kīs.

Shebānkārah: Iǵ (or Awiǵ), Zarkān (fort), Istabanāt, Nīrīz, Darābǵird, Burg (Forǵ), Tārum, Lār.

Kirmān: Gawāshir (or Bardashīr), Khabīs, Sīrǵān, Shahr-Bābek, Māshīz, Bam, Rīkān, Gīruft, Hurmuz (old) and new Hurmuz on island of Ǵirūn.

Mafāza, desert between Kirmān and Nimrūz and Makrān: Kuhbanān, Ǵarmak.

Kūhistān, *Nimrūz*, and *Zāvulistān*: Zaranǵ, Khūsf, Birǵand, Tabas-Kīlakī, Tabas-Masīnān, Tūn, Kāyin, Gunābid, Tarshīz, Zāwil, Fīrūzkūh, Ghaznīn, Maimand, Farāyīn.

Khurāsān: Nīshāpūr, Sebzivār, Asfarāyīn, Ǵāǵerm, Biyār, Ǵuvain (district), Khabūshān, Abivard, Kalāt, Tūs, Sarakhs, Merv-Shāhiǵān, Merv-i-Rud, Herāt, Ghūr, Khwāf, Ǵām, Būzgān, Balkh, Bāmiyān, Penǵhīr, Ǵuzǵān (district), Khutlān, Tālikān, Fāriyāb, Kawādiyān, Ashfūrkān.

Mazandārān: Ǵurǵān, Astarābād, Āmul, Rustamdār, Dehistān, Sārī.

Kūmis and *Tabaristān*: Khuwār (Arradān), Dāmghān, Simnān, Bustām, Fīrūzkūh, Girdkūh, Demāvend, Firrīm (on frontier of Mazandārān).

Ǵilānāt: Lāhiǵān, Ispehbed, Rasht.

The preceding list, which is due entirely to Mr. Le Strange, is invaluable for the delimitation of the Persian provinces and the existence of towns at the given date; but it is incomplete, and it must not be concluded that the absence of a town from the list proves that the town was not then in existence.

STANLEY LANE-POOLE.

LXXXI

WESTERN ASIA UNDER THE TURKS AND PERSIANS

LXXXI

WESTERN ASIA UNDER THE TURKS AND PERSIANS

THE present map shows the three settled kingdoms which arose in the fifteenth century out of the confusion of the Tīmūrid irruption. The central Khānate founded by Tīmūr had its seats at Samarkand and Bukhārā, where it lasted till the end of the fifteenth century, whilst a powerful branch established at Herāt attained to at least equal power with the head-line of Transoxiana in the latter half of the century. Both were supplanted by the Uzbeg Khānate under Shaibānī at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The only remnant of the empire of Tīmūr was now the kingdom of Kābul, which his descendant Bābar expanded, from 1526, into the Moghul Empire of Hindūstān (see Plate LXXXIII.)

Meanwhile the Safavid Shāhs had gradually established their authority over Persia, in place of the warring factions of Tīmūrids and Turkmāns, and their frontiers touched the Shaibānid Khānate on the north, the restored Othmānlī Empire on the west, and the Moghul Empire on the east. The last is treated in a separate map (see above): the subsequent developments of the three states in Transoxiana, Persia, and Asiatic Turkey, to the present day, belong here.

1. **Transoxiana.** Shāhī Beg or SHAIBĀNĪ KHĀN, a descendant of Chingiz's son Shaibān, commanding the Uzbeg tribes of Turkistān on the lower Sir (Iaxartes), conquered the whole of *Transoxiana*, *Balkh*, and *Farghāna* from the Tīmūrids in 1500–1505, and made inroads into Persia, which, however, were not maintained after his death in 1510, when Bābar also took Tukhāristān. The Shaibānids ruled the country between Merv and Uzkand until 1599; but left *Khwārizm* to be governed by a separate (though related) line of Khāns of Khiva, who still subsist, but have been vassals of Russia since 1873. The Shaibānids were succeeded by the Ǵānids or Astrakhān dynasty (1599–1785), also descended from Chingiz, and these by the Mangits or Khāns of Bukhārā, who have been subject to Russia since 1868. *Farghāna* was separated about 1700 as the Khānate of Khōkand, which passed into the possession of Russia in 1876. The whole of Tīmūr's Transoxian empire, together with Merv in Khurāsān, is now part of Russia.

2. **Persia.** The Safavid Shāhs (1502–1736), who reunited most of *Persia* under one rule in the early years of the sixteenth century (and who were succeeded by other dynasties of Shāhs, Afghāns, Afshārids, Zands, and Kāǵars, to the present day), were soon confronted on their western border by the Othmānlī Turks, who had gradually recovered *Asia Minor* after the invasion of Tīmūr. After the victory of *Khaldirān* (near Tebrīz) on August 23, 1514, Sultān SELĪM I occupied *Azarbīǧān* and *Diyār-Bekr* as far as the Tigris. In 1534 SULAIMĀN THE GREAT took *Baghdād*, and in 1554 *Shahrzūr*, the capital of Kurdistān, was annexed by Turkey. The treaty of 1555, the first ever made between Persia and Turkey, restored *Tebrīz* and *Erivān* to Persia, and assigned Turkey a frontier including *Vān* and *Selmās*. This frontier (indicated by a *thick* dotted line) may be taken as the average or normal boundary between Turkey and Persia down to the present day. The Turks twice pushed the frontier much further east. After the battle of *Tchildir* in August, 1578, they occupied *Guriel*, *Tchildir*, *Erivān*, *Karābāgh*, *Shīrvān*, and *Dāghistān* on the Caspian, and by the treaty of 1590 all this territory was secured to them, together with most of *Kurdistān*, and even *Lūristān* and the town of *Nihāvend*. This position is shown in the map SHĀH ABBĀS the Great of Persia recovered *Tebrīz* and *Nakhtchivān* in 1603, and *Erivān* in 1604, and by the treaty of 1612 the frontier reverted to the line of 1555. *Baghdād* was also recovered by Persia in 1623, but retaken in 1638 by Sultan MURĀD IV, who had also conquered *Erivān* and *Tebrīz* in 1635. The treaty of 1639 left the frontier very nearly as in 1555, assigning *Kars*, *Vān*, *Kotūr*, *Shahrzūr*, and *Baghdād* to Turkey. The second great eastern extension of the Othmānlī empire took place in the campaigns which ended in the peace of 1727, whereby Turkey acquired not only *Kurdistān* and *Lūristān*, but the cities of *Kirmānshāhān*, *Hamadān*, *Zenǧān*, *Khōi*, *Marāgha*, besides *Tebrīz* and *Azarbīǧān*, *Urdūbād*, *Nakhtchevān*, *Erivān*, *Karabāgh*, *Ganǵa*, *Tiflīs*, *Gurǧistān*, and *Shīrvān*. This temporary advantage was withdrawn by the treaty of 1732, which put back the frontier almost to the normal line, leaving the provinces *north of the Aras* to Turkey, but giving back *Tebrīz* and *Lūristān* &c. down to *Hawīza* to Persia. NĀDIR SHĀH'S conquests produced no permanent change, for the treaty of 1736 closely followed the line of 1639. The frontier has been frequently contested since, and the treaty of Erzerūm in 1847 vainly attempted to settle it; but the treaty of Berlin in 1878 finally assigned *Kotūr* to Turkey.

WESTERN ASIA
under the
TURKS & PERSIANS
A.D. 1600
English Miles
SOUTHERN ARABIA
Eng. Miles
Longitude East of Greenwich
DESHT I KIPCHAK
KHANATE OF THE KRIM
BAHR BUNTUS
BAHR KHAZAR
BAHR HIND
BAHR EL-MAGHRIB
BAHR EL-HABASHAN
BAHR FÁRS
BAHR EL-KULZUM
BAHR EL-KHARAZ
ANADOLHI
KARAMAN
MARASH DIYAR BEKR
IRAK ARABI
KHUZISTAN
LARISTAN
KIRMÁN
MEKRAN
SHAMAKHIYA
KARABAGH
GURJISTAN
CIRCASSIA
MINGRELIA
KHWARIZM
MÁ-WARÁ-N-NAHR
SHAIBANIDS
UZBEKS
TURKISTÁN
MOGHULISTÁN
BADAKHSHÁN
TUKHARISTÁN
ZABULISTÁN
KÁBULISTÁN
KUHISTÁN
FARAHAWAS
MISR
SHÁM
HIJÁZ
HADRAMAUT
OMÁN
GUJARÁT
KACHH
Constantinople
Rhodes
Cyprus
Baghtchisarai
Baluchlaca
Tcheldir
Sivas
Erzerum
Trebizond
Tarku
Derbend
Shamakhiya
Kur R.
Baku
Tiflis
Kutais
Poti
Kars
Van
Mosul
Nineveh
Nisibin
Diyarbakr
Aleppo
Hamah
Tadmur
Palmyra
Damascus
Tripoli
Latakiya
Antioch
Jerusalem
Ramla
Gaza
Askalan
Yafa
Cairo
Misr
Suez
Tur
Aila
Mecca
Medina
Yambu
Jidda
Harar
Zafar
Aden
Zaila
Hajar
Shihr
Mukalla
Suhar
Muskat
Tuwwat
Kalhat
Nizwa
Daibul
Bhakar
Multan
Uch
Sehwan
Kandahar
Ghazni
Kabul
Parwan
Bust
Zarang
Helmand R.
Khabis
Farmán (Bardastr)
Bam
Jiruft
Narmashir
Sirjan
Shiraz
Bahbahan
Ram Hurmuz
Behbehan
Dizful
Shustar
Susa
Ahwaz
Basra
Wasit
Baghdad
Kufa
Hillah
Karbala
Najaf
Anah
Rahba
Rakka
Sinjar
Harran
Urfa
Samosata
Malatiya
Kharput
Erzinjan
Tokat
Amasiya
Sinub
Trebizond
Kastamuni
Angora
Kutahiya
Afiun Karahisar
Akserai
Konya
Karaman
Ermenak
Alaya
Budrum
Makri
Sultaniya
Kazvin
Tihran
Ray
Simnan
Damghan
Bistam
Shahrud
Bayat
Khwar
Jajarm
Isfarayin
Nishapur
Sabzawar
Mashhad
Tus
Turbat
Sarakhs
Merv
Merv er-Rud
Maruchak
Andkhud
Fariyab
Shibarkhan
Balkh
Khulm
Kunduz
Ishkamish
Andarab
Taliqan
Ghori
Tirmiz
Saghaniyan
Khuttalan
Wakhsh R.
Oxus R.
Amul
Bukhara
Karshi
Shahr-i-Sabz
Samarkand
Urgutiya
Khojend
Shahrukhiya
Tashkend
Akhsi
Andijan
Marghinan
Aksu
Kashgar
Yarkand
Khotan
Aksu
Otrar
Turkistan
Sairam
Chu R.
Issik Kul
Talas R.
Sir Darya
Jaxartes R.
Khiva
Kath
Urgenj
Old Bed of Oxus R.
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Ust Urt
Mangishlak
Manghit
Kungrad
Kipchak
Serai el-Jedida
Haji Tarkhan
Kuma R.
Terek R.
Sudak
Kaffa
Azak
Don R.
Volga R.
Ural R.
Ural Mts.
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Sea of Azof
Crimea
Perekop
Arabat
Kerch
Taman
Kuban R.
Caucasus Mts.
Elburz Mts.
Hindu Kush
Suleiman Mts.
Kirthar Mts.
Indus R.
Helmand R.
Zarang
Khash R.
Mashkid R.
Hab R.
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Karun R.
Shatt el-Arab
Kuwait
El-Katif
Bahrein
Qatar
Abu-Shahr
Bushire
Lingah
Jask
Gwadur
Kalat
Sonmiani
Karachi
Thatta
Sehwan
Jacobabad
Shikarpur
Sukkur
Khairpur
Hyderabad
Mirpur
Umarkot
Jodhpur
Bhuj
Diu
Surat
Cambay
Ahmadabad
Dholka
Dhandhuka
Wadhwan
Jhalawar
Rann of Kachh
Gulf of Cambay
Gulf of Oman
Persian Gulf
Red Sea
Arabian Sea
Indian Ocean
Sea of Oman
Gulf of Aden
Gulf of Suez
Gulf of Akaba
Dead Sea
Jordan R.
Sea of Galilee
Jerusalem
Bethlehem
Hebron
Beersheba
Gaza
Ramla
Jaffa
Haifa
Acre
Tyre
Sidon
Beirut
Damascus
Baalbek
Homs
Hamah
Aleppo
Rakka
Tadmur
Palmyra
Deir
Anah
Hit
Ramadi
Falluja
Kerbela
Najaf
Hillah
Kufa
Baghdad
Samarra
Kirkuk
Arbil
Mosul
Nineveh
Nisibin
Diyarbakr
Harran
Urfa
Samosata
Malatiya
Kharput
Erzinjan
Erzerum
Trebizond
Tokat
Amasiya
Sinub
Kastamuni
Angora
Kutahiya
Afiun Karahisar
Akserai
Konya
Karaman
Ermenak
Alaya
Budrum
Rhodes

3. **Asiatic Turkey.** The Othmānlīs recovered their provinces after Tīmūr's irruption; five were subdued in 1426–8, and *Karamān* fell in 1471. The *Crimea* was annexed in 1475; *Syria*, *Egypt*, and *Arabia* were wrested from the Mamlūks in 1517. The variations in the frontier against Persia are described above; and the chief loss that Turkey has suffered in Asia has been that of *Kars* and *Batūm* confirmed by the Berlin treaty of 1878.

4. The Portuguese established themselves at *Hurmuz* (Ormuz) island in 1515. It may be noticed that there have been six successive trading ports in the Persian Gulf in Mohammadan times. (1) *Sīrāf*, destroyed by earthquake about 1000; (2) *Kīs island*, during the domination of the Seljūks of Kirmān; (3) *Hurmuz city*, on the mainland, under the Seljūks and early Mongols; (4) *Hurmuz island*, to which the port was transferred in the first half of the fourteenth century; (5) *Bandar Abbās*, in the beginning of the seventeenth century; and finally (6) *Bushire* (Abū-Shahr) to-day.

5. *Adan* (Aden) was taken by the British in 1839, and placed under the government of the Bombay Presidency; and the opposite island of *Perim*, which had been temporarily occupied by England in 1799 and 1801, was annexed in 1857. There are treaty relations, involving a protectorate, between the Sultan of *Maskat* and the Indian Government; and the island of *Bahrain* is also within the British sphere of influence.

S. LANE-POOLE.

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LXXXII

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE,

1356–1897

LXXXII

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE, 1356–1897

THE first territorial acquisition of the Turks in Europe was the Byzantine stronghold of Choiridocastron, or 'the pig's fort,' built on the site of Sestos on the Thracian Chersonese. The spot, at which Suleiman Pasha, son of Orkhan, landed in 1356, still bears the name of Ghāzilar Iskelesi, or 'the landing-place of the victors.' Gallipoli fell into their possession next year, and was followed by the rest of the Thracian Chersonese, by the Thracian towns of Ipsala and Malgara, and by Rodosto on the Sea of Marmara—the last conquest being a distinct step on the road to Constantinople. Orkhan's successor, Murad I, captured Adrianople in 1360, and made it his capital instead of Brūsa. The Turks now came into contact with the Bulgarians. The Bulgarian towns of Stara (Old) Zagora and Philippopolis were taken in 1362; and, four years later, the last Bulgarian Tsar, John Shishman III, pledged himself to aid Murad with his forces. The crushing defeat of the Serbs on the river Maritza in 1371 gave Jamboli, Ichtiman, and Samakov to the victors, and opened up to them the road to Macedonia, which had been the centre of Tsar Dushan's short-lived Empire. Sofia, the present Bulgarian capital, surrendered in 1382; Nish, the key of modern Servia, was captured in 1386, and in 1389 the ever-memorable battle of Kossovopolje, 'the field of blackbirds,' crushed for nearly five centuries the hopes of the Southern Slavs. But for seventy years more Servia maintained a sort of independence. Murad had fallen by the hand of Milosh Obilich at Kossovo, and his successor, Bayezid I, allowed Stephen Lazarevich to reign over Servia as his vassal, on condition that he gave him his sister in marriage, and relinquished the whole of Macedonia. But Bulgaria was not spared. Trnovo, the capital of the Bulgarian Tsars, fell in 1393; the attempt of Mirtschea of Wallachia and Sigismund to free Bulgaria was ruined on the battlefield of Nicopolis in 1396; and in 1398 the last vestige of Bulgarian independence was destroyed by the expulsion of Sracimir, Shishman's half-brother, from his principality of Vidin. For the next 480 years Bulgaria was under the direct rule of the Turks. Meanwhile, across the Danube, Mirtschea of Wallachia had been forced to pay tribute by the superior force of the Turkish army, which crossed that river in 1391 for the first time. On the registers of the Sublime Porte the dependence of Wallachia dates from this 'first capitulation.' But the defeat of Bayezid at Angora in 1402, and the disputed succession which followed, enabled Mirtschea to play off one candidate against the other, and it was not till after the accession of Mohammed I that he had to submit a second time to a Turkish suzerain, while preserving local independence. In Greece, too, before his fall, Bayezid had annexed Thessaly in 1393, invested Salonika in 1401, and reduced the Duchy of Athens, the Frank Principality of Achaia, and the Byzantine Despotate of Misithra—the last two of which almost made up the Peloponnesos between them—to the payment of a tribute.

Mohammad I and his successor Murad II continued the subjugation of the Balkan Peninsula. The former, indeed, confirmed Stephen Lazarevich in Servia, and even restored to him the land on the upper waters of the Morava, which the rival Turkish chieftain, Mūsa, had taken away. But under him the Turks first obtained a footing in Albania, and established in 1416 a garrison in the castle of Vrhbosna, 'the source of the Bosna,' in the heart of Bosnia—a country which they had invaded first in 1392 after the death of the great Bosnian king, Tvrtko I, again in 1398, and then, at the invitation of a Bosnian faction opposed to Hungary, in 1415. This garrison was soon withdrawn, but Murad II became the real arbiter of Bosnia, occupying Vrhbosna again in 1436, allowing the exiled king, Tvrtko II, to return as his vassal, and occupying Zvornik and Srebrenitza, two Bosnian towns. Murad claimed Servia, too, as the grandson of the Servian princess who had married Bayezid, and over-ran it with his army. But the exploits of Hunyady János procured a respite for both Bosnia and Servia; while Skanderbeg, the Albanian hero, who died in 1467, checked the Turkish advance towards the Adriatic. Salonika and the North of Epirus had fallen, however, to the Turks in 1430. Nineteen years later, Acarnania, Aetolia, and the district of Arta, which belonged to the Tocco family, became Turkish.

Mohammad II completed the work of his predecessors. He took Constantinople in 1453, finally annexed Servia (except Belgrade) in 1459, and in 1463 Bosnia (except the two *banats* of Jajce and Srebrenik, which remained in Hungarian hands till 1528 and 1520 respectively). Twenty years later the whole of the Herzegovina was under Turkish rule. Of the South Slavonic lands Montenegro alone remained free. Beyond the Danube, Moldavia began to pay tribute in 1456, although the Moldavian prince, Stephen the Great, made a spirited resistance. In Greece almost all the Peloponnesos[1], the Duchy of Athens, and the Venetian possessions in Euboea and Albania (including Scutari, but not Durazzo and the present Montenegrin harbour of Antivari) were now definitely annexed, and the Crimea passed under Mohammad's sway. For three centuries the Black Sea became a Turkish lake. Among the Greek islands, Mohammad II annexed in 1457 Lemnos, Imbros, and Thasos, hitherto governed by the Genoese Signors of Mitylene, whose dominion in the last island ended in 1462; and captured the three Ionian islands

[1] The Peloponnesos, at the date of the Turkish conquest in 1460, was composed of the Byzantine Despotate of Misithra (the Frank Principality of Achaia having been finally extinguished in 1430) and the Venetian fortresses of Methoni, Koroni, Nauplia, Argos, Thermisi, and Navarino, to which Monemvasia was added in 1464.

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of Sta. Maura, Cephalonia, and Zante from Leonardo di Tocco in 1479. In 1480 the Turks even set foot in Italy at Otranto, where they remained for a year.

Bayezid II, his successor, took Durazzo, Lepanto, and Methoni and Koroni in the Peloponnesos, from the Venetians, but lost Cephalonia and allowed Venice to retain Zante on payment of a tribute. Suleiman I at last captured Belgrade in 1521, with its Hungarian neighbour Semlin; and after the defeat of the Hungarians at Mohács in 1526 their country lay open to his advance. Buda-Pest came into his hands in 1541; he governed a large part of Hungary, and died before the walls of the Hungarian town of Sziget. From Venice, too, he took Nauplia and Monemvasia, her last possessions in the Peloponnesos, and all the islands in the Archipelago which still belonged to her. Thus, Paros, Antiparos, Ios, Skyros, Patmos, and Stympalia became Turkish in 1537–1540; Tinos, 'the principal seat' of the power of the Republic in the Archipelago,' was compelled to pay tribute; and Aegina was annexed. Knin and Scardona in Dalmatia fell in 1522, and Clissa in 1536, becoming the residence of a Turkish governor. In 1540 all continental Dalmatia, except the cities, was Turkish. In 1566 both the Catholic Duchy of Naxos and the island of Chios, owned for 220 years by the Genoese company, or *Maona*, of the Justiniani, were annexed. Under Murad III conflicts continued on the Hungarian frontier, but at the close of the sixteenth century Michael the Brave of Wallachia, who for a moment united the Rumanian lands of Wallachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania in his person, temporarily revived the hopes of the Christians on the Lower Danube. The next century marked the turning-point in the career of Turkish conquest. In 1606 the treaty of Sitvatorok fixed the extreme limits of Turkish rule in the west, except for the acquisitions at the treaty of Vasvar in 1664. In 1669 the capture of the town of Candia gave Crete, after a struggle of twenty-four years, to Turkey; but even then the three Cretan harbours of Spinalunga, Suda, and Grabusa remained in Venetian hands, the two first till 1715, while the Sphakiotes did not pay *haratsh* till 1770. In 1614 and again in 1670 the Peloponnesian district of Maina was made to pay tribute. Practically the last acquisition of the Turkish Empire in Europe was Podolia, ceded by the King of Polandin 1672.

The decline began with the loss of Buda-Pest in 1686, and of many other places in Hungary, as well as of the last Turkish strongholds in Dalmatia; and by the peace of Karlovitz, in 1699, Turkey ceded Transylvania, all Hungary (except the part between the rivers Theiss and Maros), a large part of Slavonia and Croatia, Podolia, nearly all the Peloponnesos, and the Ionian islands of Sta. Maura and Zante. Between 1699 and 1715, the date of the next Turco-Venetian war, Venice was therefore mistress of the Peloponnesos, Aegina, Tinos, and Mykonos. The peace of Passarovitz in 1718 put Austria in possession of the *banat* of Temesvár, and gave her temporarily, till 1739, the *banat* of Crajova (now part of the Kingdom of Rumania), and part of what is now Servia, including Belgrade, with a strip of North Bosnia. On the other hand, Turkey recovered the Peloponnesos from Venice, and gained a small strip of seaboard on either side of the Republic of Ragusa, so as to keep the Ragusan and Venetian territories apart. Venice also ceded to Turkey Aegina, Mykonos, and Tinos, but retained Butrinto, Prevesa, and Vonitza, which she had conquered during the war. The peace of Belgrade in 1739 restored to Turkey the Austrian gains in Wallachia, Bosnia, and Servia, and the Hungarian town of Orsova, with the island of Ada-Kaleh. But Russia was now advancing. By the treaty of Kutchuk (Little) Kainardji in 1774, Abdul Hamid I recognized the independence of the Crimea (which was definitely annexed by the Tsar in 1784), and ceded to Russia Azov and several places on the north coast of the Black Sea, which Russian ships were now for the first time allowed to navigate freely. Three years later Austria obtained the Bukovina, and in 1789 recaptured Belgrade, which she held till 1791. By the treaty of Sistova in 1790 she regained Orsova. By that of Jassy in 1792 Russia moved her frontier to the Dniester; in 1812 the treaty of Bucharest extended it to the Pruth, thus separating the Rumanians of Moldavia from their brethren of Bessarabia, while at the same time the Delta of the Danube became Russian. In 1800 the Ionian Islands, which in 1797 had been handed over by Venice to France, were formed into a Republic under the joint protection of Turkey and Russia, and all the continental dependencies of the Islands ceded to the Sultan. After a brief interval of French rule, the Islands were placed under British protection in 1815. In accordance with the convention of 1800, the British delivered up Parga (the last continental dependency of the Islands) to Turkey in 1819. The results of the Servian and Greek revolutions were the foundation of the Principality of Servia on the basis of administrative independence in 1817, still further widened by the Convention of Akerman in 1826; and of an independent Kingdom of Greece in 1830, to which the Ionian Islands were given up by Great Britain in 1864. Crete was temporarily handed over to Egypt from 1832 to 1840. The treaty of Paris in 1856 restored to Turkey the Delta of the Danube, and to Moldavia the southern part of Bessarabia. In 1859 the two Danubian Principalities united and took the common name of Rumania.

The treaty of Berlin in 1878, annulling in many ways the abortive treaty of San Stefano, yet confirmed the exchange of this slip of Bessarabia for the Dobrudzha, only extending a little the new Rumanian territory. Rumanian independence was formally recognized, and in 1881 the prince became a King. Bulgaria north of the Balkans, which became an autonomous Principality, had thus to make good what Russia owed to Rumania. Bulgaria, south of the Balkans, remained under the name of Eastern Rumelia among the direct possessions of the Sultan, but was given administrative autonomy; in 1885, however, the two Bulgarias were practically united by the Philippopolis revolution. Servia received the Bulgarian-speaking district of Pirot, as well as Nish and Vranja; her full independence was recognized, and in 1882 she became a Kingdom. Montenegro was about doubled in size, and received a frontage on the sea at Antivari. In 1880 Dulcigno was added in exchange for the Albanian towns of Gusinje and Plava after a naval demonstration. Bosnia and the Herzegovina were 'occupied' by Austria-Hungary, which also obtained the right to place garrisons in the Sandjak of Novi-Bazar. A later convention authorized Austrian garrisons to be put in the three points of Prjepolje, Priboj, and Bjelopolje, but the town of Plevlje was substituted afterwards for the last-named place. In 1881 Greece received part of Epirus and all Thessaly, but in 1897 certain strategic points in Thessaly were retroceded to Turkey[1].

W. MILLER.

[1] After this latter year, the last included within the plan of the Atlas, Prince George of Greece was in 1898 appointed for three years High Commissioner of the four Powers in Crete, which has now received an autonomous administration.

LXXXIII

INDIA UNDER MOHAMMADAN RULE

LXXXIII

INDIA UNDER MOHAMMADAN RULE

1. Arab settlement. India was not conquered by the Arabs. Their vast campaigns of the seventh and eighth centuries only reached its borders, and the single settlement made by the Arabs was in *Sind*, which Mohammad Kāsim invaded from Persia in 711, storming the port of Daibal, overrunning the lower valley of the Indus, and taking Multān, where an Arab government, afterwards supplemented by a second government lower down at Mansūra, ruled Sind till near the end of the tenth century, when a period of anarchy ended in the reduction of the province by Mahmūd of Ghazna in 1025.

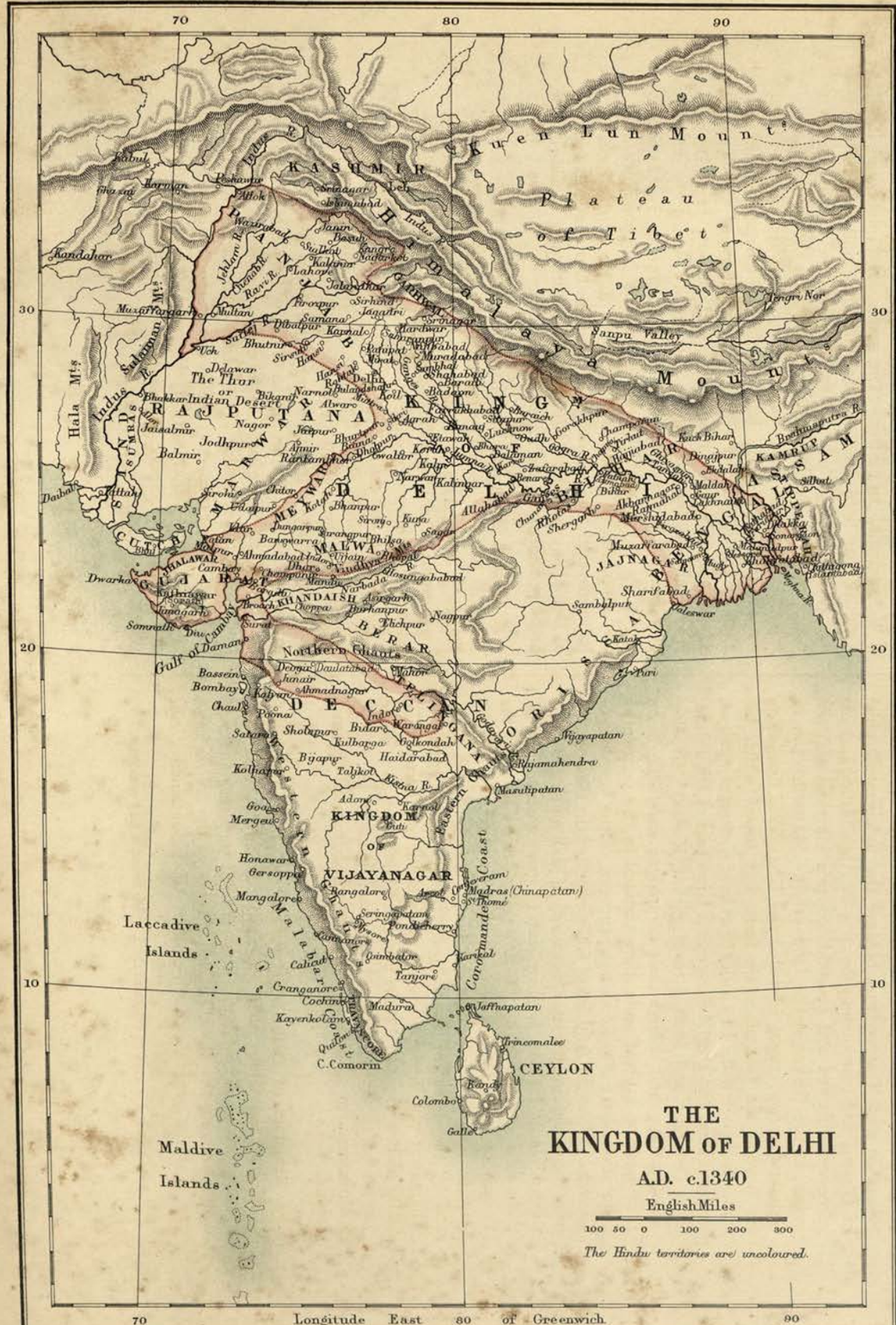
2. Turkish invasions. The Mohammadan conquest of Hindustan was part of the general overflow of Turkish tribes from central Asia in the tenth and eleventh centuries. A Turkish officer, a vassal of the Persian Sāmānid rulers of Khurāsān and Transoxiana, became the independent chief of Ghazna and surrounding districts in Afghānistān, and his successors enlarged and consolidated this kingdom and are known as the Ghaznawids (962–1186). MAHMŪD, son of Sabuktagīn, (998–1030) extended the Ghaznawid dominions far beyond the few mountain forts and towns which his father had governed. In a series of at least sixteen campaigns, between 1000 and 1026, he overran a large part of Hindustan, from Peshāwar and Multān to Nagarkōt, Kanauj[1], Gwalior, and Gujarāt; and, though these campaigns were little more than raids on a great scale, they resulted in the permanent acquisition of the *Panjāb* as a dependency of the kingdom of Ghazna. When the Afghāns of Ghōr expelled the Ghaznawids from the mountains, the later successors of Mahmūd established themselves at Lahore as their seat of government; but on their final deposition by MOHAMMAD GHŌRĪ in 1186 the Panjāb reverted to the position of a dependency of the Afghān kingdom. Mohammad Ghōrī also annexed *Sind*, and by the defeat of the Rājpūt princes at the battle of Thaneswar obtained possession of most of northern India, as far as Bengal; and for the first time Hindustan as a whole was united, though loosely and temporarily, under the rule of a Mohammadan sovereign, albeit governed from an external capital.

3. Kingdom of Delhi. It was not till after the death of Mohammad Ghōrī that a strictly Indian Mohammadan dynasty arose. The Ghōrid kingdom fell to pieces and was divided among the chief Turkish officers of the late sultān: one of these generals, Kutb-ed-dīn Aibek, obtained *Delhi* (Dehlī) and founded the line of the Turkish Sultāns of Delhi, who in five distinct dynasties (Slaves, Khaljīs, Taghlakids, Sayyids, and Lōdīs) held sway over India north of the Vindhya mountains from 1206 down to the Moghul invasion of 1526. One of the Khaljīs, Alā-ed-dīn, even pushed his frontiers into the Deccan, and annexed Devagīri and part of Telingana (1310). MOHAMMAD IBN TAGHLAK continued this southerly movement, and offended by the disloyalty of Delhi erected the Deccan city of Devagīri, which he named *Daulatābād*, into the capital of an empire which included Hindustan, Gujarāt, Mālwa, Bengal and Tirhūt, Telingana, Dvāra-samudra and Mabar, &c. *The extent of his dominions is shown in the coloured portion of the left-hand map on the accompanying Plate.*

4. Provincial Dynasties. The empire of Mohammad ibn Taghlak was both unwieldy and unstable, and this sultān's innovations and various unpopular measures led to revolts which ended in the establishment one after the other of the separate provincial kingdoms of *Bengal* (always loosely held by the central power, but absolutely independent from 1338 to 1576), *Jaunpūr* (Sharkīs, or Kings of the East, 1394–1500), *Gujarāt* (1396–1572), and *Mālwa* (1401–1530, when annexed by Gujarāt), in the north; whilst the kings of *Khāndēsh* (1370–1599) and the Bahmanid Sultāns of *Kulbarga* (1347–1526) governed in full independence the Deccan north of the Kistna. Many of the Hindu princes had recovered their power in Hindustan, and the later kings of Delhi (Sayyids and Lōdīs) had little authority outside the home province and the Panjāb.

5. Moghul Empire. The irruption of the 'Moghuls' or Mongols (who were really for the most part Turks) under BĀBAR, a descendant of Tīmūr, in 1526, though they overran a great part of northern India as far as the frontier of Bengal, was too temporary to reunite the shattered empire of the early Delhi sultāns, and on Bābar's death in 1530 the invaders were expelled by Shīr Shāh and the Afghān chiefs of Bengal. Afghān rule, however, proved unpopular, and the Moghuls, returning in 1555, by the victory of Pānīpat placed Bābar's grandson AKBAR on the throne of India, and established the dynasty of the Moghul Emperors (1556–1857), which endured until the reversion of the Indian empire to the British Crown. Akbar recovered one by one the separated provinces, Jaunpūr (1559), Gujarāt (1572), Bengal (1575–7), and the rest of Hindustan; annexed *Kashmīr*, which had hitherto maintained its isolation, and Kandahār; and organized the border

[1] In this map *j* is used to represent the English sound of that consonant.



THE
KINGDOM OF DELHI
A.D. c.1340

English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300

The Hindu territories are uncoloured.

THE
MOGHUL EMPIRE
AT THE DEATH OF AKBAR
A.D. 1605

English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300

The Hindu territories are uncoloured.

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provinces of Berār and Khāndēsh (1600–1) as his southern outposts against the Deccan kingdoms, which he did not attempt to conquer. *The extent of Akbar's empire is shown in the right-hand map accompanying.* Like the Delhi kingdom, but later by a century, the Bahmanid power had broken up about the close of the fifteenth century into a number of separate independent states, of which the two most important were the Adil Shāhs of *Bījāpūr* (1489–1686) and the Kutb Shāhs of *Golkonda* (1512–1687). These were annexed by Akbar's great-grandson AURANGZĪB near the close of the seventeenth century, and a vast Deccan kingdom was added to the dominions of the 'Great Moghul,' which stretched from Kābul to Chittagong, and from Kashmīr to Masulipatan. Aurangzīb's bigoted Mohammadan policy, and an expansion of empire beyond his skill of organization, led to a Hindu revival. The great emperor's successors were unequal to the burden of power that he bequeathed to them, and the rising races were strong and young. The successful invasions of Nāḍir Shāh of Persia in 1738, and of Ahmad Shāh, the Durrānī ruler of the recently erected kingdom or Amirate of Afghānistān (1747 to the present time), in 1748, 1757, &c., showed the weakness of the Moghul empire. 'Fifty years after Aurangzīb's death the Marāthas were supreme in the south, except where the newly-founded dynasty of the Nizām (of Haidarābād) kept them at arm's length, and were pushing their way through Gujarāt up to Delhi; the Rājpūts had ceased to acknowledge the Moghul supremacy; the Sikhs were gradually winning the mastery of the Panjāb from the Afghāns; the Jāts were practically independent near Agra; Oudh was virtually a separate kingdom, and so was Bengal.'[1] The little patches of territory at Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras could not portend the great future of the East India Company; but the battles of Plassey (1757) and Baksar (Buxar, 1764) practically ended the Moghul empire, though the fiction of its sovereignty was maintained till 1857.

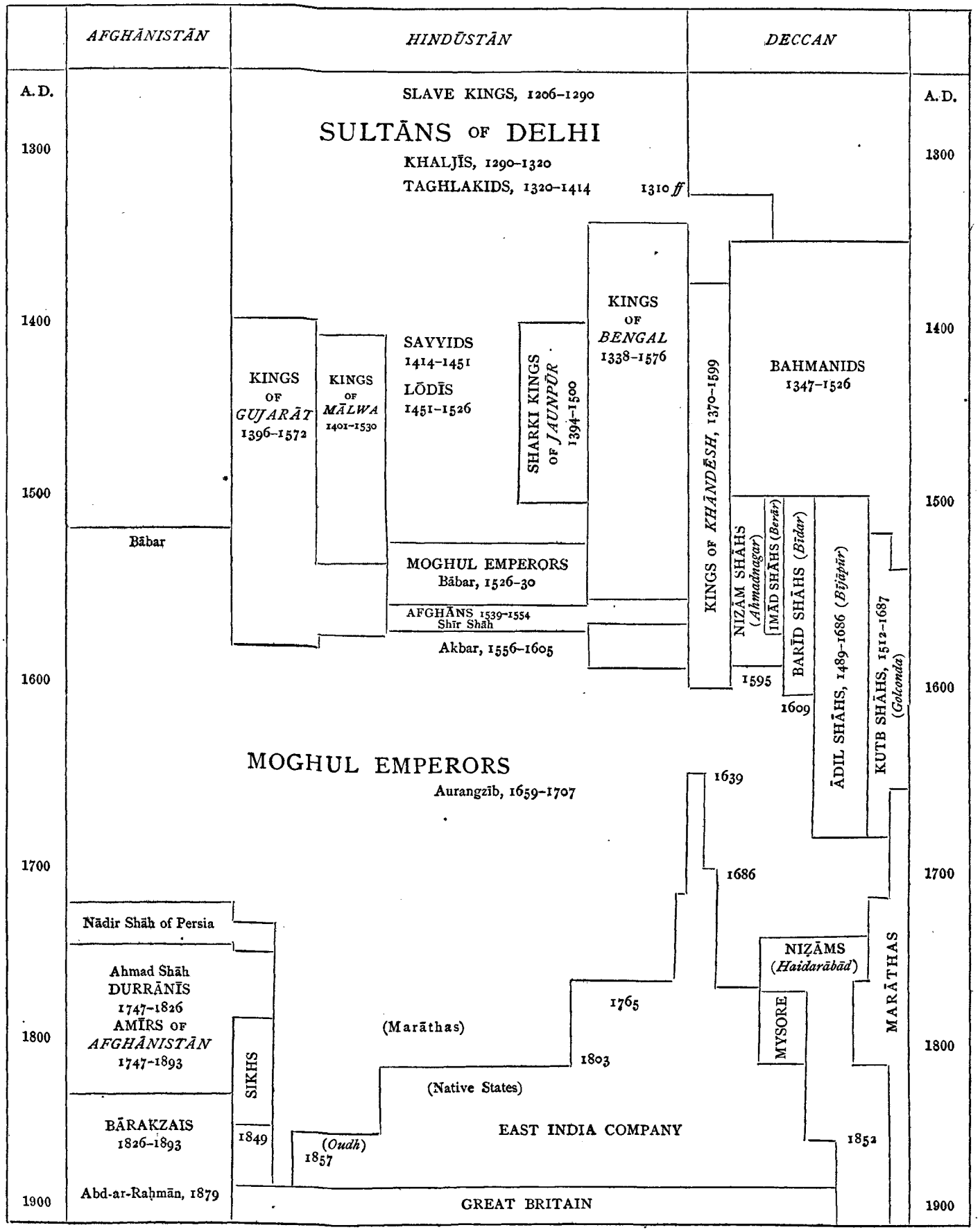
A table of the Mohammadan dynasties is added over page.

S. LANE-POOLE.

[1] See S. LANE-POOLE, *The Mohammadan Dynasties*, pp. 281–335, for lists of the Mohammadan rulers of India.

[P. T O.

TABLE OF THE MOHAMMADAN DYNASTIES OF INDIA



LXXXIV

INDIA IN 1792 AND 1845

LXXXIV

INDIA IN 1792 AND 1845

I. INDIA IN 1792.

IT is extremely difficult to express by a map the political divisions of India during the eighteenth century, as some of the most important powers had rather spheres of influence than definite territorial dominions. The regions marked as belonging e.g. to Scindia, or the Rajah of Berar, were not, for the most part, under the direct sovereignty of those princes, but were held by numerous petty chiefs who paid them a tribute (*chout* is rather 'blackmail') with greater or less regularity. Small districts thus subjected to one or other of the Mahratta powers, were scattered over Gujarat, Malwa, Bundelcund and Khandesh; and many of them paid tribute to more than one overlord. In general, the Mahrattas rather exercised powers over districts than possessed them. Where these powers were disputed, or only occasionally admitted, it is doubtful whether the region should be coloured as being subject to the Mahratta confederacy. This is the case with the greater part of Rajpootana, where nearly all the rajahs (save those of Jesulmeer and Bikaneer) were at one time or another more or less under the power of the Mahrattas, though they often refused or evaded the payment of tribute.

1. The Dominions of the East India Company. In 1792 the East India Company exercised direct authority over the following districts:

(1) *Bengal* and *Bahar*. Calcutta and the district immediately surrounding it (the '24 Pergunnahs') had been acquired in full sovereignty by cession from our nominee Meer Jaffier after Clive's conquest of Suraj-ud-Dowlah in 1757. The rest of the two provinces was taken over and placed under the Company's administration after the death of Meer Jaffier in 1765: his successors were merely titular Nawabs.

(2) The long slip of the *Northern Circars*, along the eastern coast, as far as the mouth of the Kistna, had been ceded to the Company by the Nizam in 1768. To this territory was added in 1788 the *Guntoor Circar*, south of the Kistna, also by cession from the Nizam.

(3) In the Presidency of *Madras* the Company owned (*a*) the original district round Madras and Fort St. David, which had been occupied since the first settlement of the British on the Coromandel coast; (*b*) the territories annexed from Tippoo Sultan of Mysore in 1792 by Lord Cornwallis, the *Baramahal*, *Dindigul*, and *Malabar* on the west coast, including Calicut.

(4) The *Bombay* Presidency consisted as yet only of the island of Bombay and some minute pieces of the adjacent mainland.

The Company owned as dependent allies several native princes: (1) the Nawab of *Oude*, whose original territories north of the Jumna had been increased (*a*) by the conquest of *Rohilcund* from the independent Rohilla chiefs in 1774 under the sanction of Warren Hastings, and (*b*) by the districts of *Allahabad* and *Corah*, sold to the Nawab by the Company in 1773; (2) the minor chiefs in or on the borders of Bengal, e.g. the Rajahs of *Tipperah* and *Cooch Behar*; and (3) the princes who had been preserved by the British arms from conquest by Hyder Ali and Tippoo Sultan, the Nawab of the *Carnatic*, and the Rajahs of *Tanjore*, *Travancore*, and *Cochin*.

2. The Mahrattas. The one great independent power in India was the Mahratta Confederacy, which exercised a more or less defined authority over the greater part of the centre, west, and north. Their nominal chief was the Rajah of *Sattara*, but the real presidential power lay with the Peishwa, who reigned at *Poonah* over the regions from which the Mahratta race had emerged on its career of conquest. But the Peishwa's power had fallen into decay, and in 1792 the most important member of the Mahratta Confederacy was the Maharajah Mahdajee Scindia, whose ill-compacted dominions were scattered from the borders of the Punjaub almost to the gates of Poonah. He dominated *Khandesh*, the greater part of *Gujarat* and *Malwa*, and the lands round *Delhi*, whose nominal owner, the blind Grand Mogul Shah Alum, he held in captivity in his old palace. Scindia's capital since 1784 was the fortress of *Gwalior*; an infinite number of princes of central India paid him tribute. Interspersed among the territories acknowledging vassalage to Scindia were those of a rival Mahratta house, that of the Holkars, whose capital lay at *Indore*. The power of this house was considerable, but could not compare with that of Scindia, who in 1795 murdered Mulhar Rao Holkar, and occupied most of his lands.

In the west the house of the Guicowars of *Baroda* were the chief Mahratta power. They exercised authority over the rajahs of the Kattiwar peninsula and the south-western parts of Gujarat.

In Central India the rulers of the house of Bhonslay, whose capital was *Nagpore*, were very powerful. They are generally styled by English writers Rajahs of Nagpore, or of Berar. Their influence extended right across the Indian Peninsula to the eastern coast, where they had conquered *Cuttack* and the greater part of *Orissa*. They were the only Mahratta power bordering on the British dominions in Bengal.

Many other smaller Mahratta chiefs, mainly in the regions south of Poonah, owned fealty to the Peshwa, and in some districts, such as *Bundelcund*, the rajahs paid tribute to one or more of the Confederates, but were not actually subjects of any one of them. The Rajpoot States, in the north and west, were intermittently plundered and ransomed by the Mahrattas, but were never thoroughly subdued.

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3. The Mohammadan States. Excluding the Nawabs of the Carnatic and of Oude, who were now dependent on the Company, we find only two important Mohammadan States in India.

(1) The Sultanate of *Mysore*, a kingdom recently created by the great Hyder Ali (1761–82), and now ruled by his son Tippoo. Having been engaged in war with the Company Tippoo had just lost much land to the British and to their allies, the Nizam and the Mahrattas; but he was still ruling at Seringapatam over the table-land of Mysore, the coast of *Canara*, and the districts about *Coimbatore* in the plain below the Ghauts. At last he provoked a second war with the British, and was defeated and slain in 1799.

(2) The descendants of Nizam-ul-Mulk, a Mogul viceroy who had made himself practically independent about the year 1724, still ruled at *Hyderabad* over the greater part of the Central Deccan. In fear of the Mahrattas, they had several times entered into treaties with the British: but at the date of our map they were not in a condition of vassalage. It was only six years later, and after suffering many more afflictions at the hands of the Mahrattas, the Nizam finally accepted complete British protection in 1798.

4. The Sikhs. Long ere the year 1792 these sectaries had driven out from the south-eastern regions of the Punjaub the Afghan governors who had ruled it in the middle of the century after the conquests of Ahmed Shah Abdali. They now formed an unruly confederacy under many petty chiefs, and were holding their own against the Afghan to the north and the Mahratta to the south. Their furthest outposts were the recently acquired towns of *Rawul Pindee* and *Jheelum* on the one side, and *Patiala* and *Umballa* on the other. In a few years Runjeet Sing (1792–1839) was to unite them under his despotism, and to lead them to further conquests.

5. The Afghans. The empire which Ahmed Shah Abdali, the Durani, had built up was already beginning to fall from the hands of his grandson Zemaun Shah. But that prince still held a considerable tract in North-Western India, and Afghan governors retained possession of *Mooltan*, *Attock*, *Peshawur*, *Cashmere*, and the whole of the *Derajat* (the trans-Indus strip of the Punjaub). The Nawab of Bhawulpore still owned the ruler of Caubul as his suzerain; but the Belooch Ameers of *Scinde* rebelled in 1773, and after a time established their independence: only *Bukkur* and the district round it remained in the possession of the Afghan. The Khans of *Kelat* in Beloochistan had also got rid of their masters: early in the reign of Zemaun Shah they had practically freed themselves from the Afghan suzerainty. After the dethronement of Zemaun Shah in 1800, the Durani empire broke to pieces with even greater rapidity.

6. The Minor European Settlements. The French possessed no more than the factories of *Chandernagore* (near Calcutta), *Pondicherry*, *Carical*, and *Yanaon* on the Coromandel coast, and *Mahé* in Malabar. The outbreak of the Revolutionary war was to deprive them for more than twenty years of these small remnants of their former power. The Dutch were still in possession of *Ceylon*, whose ports they held, while the interior formed the native kingdom of *Kandy*. The Portuguese held a considerable tract round *Goa*, and the outlying ports of *Diu* and *Damaun* north of Bombay.

II. INDIA IN 1845.

In the half-century which intervened between the condition of affairs represented in the two maps on the accompanying plate, the political geography of India was completely changed. The whole country was now either under direct British rule or vassal to the Company, with the exception of the Sikh State in the *Punjaub* and the hillmen of *Nepaul* and *Bhootan*. This new state of things was due to the policy of conquest and 'subsidiary alliance' adopted by the two great Governors-General, Lord Wellesley (1798–1805) and Lord Hastings (1813–23). Impelled to action by the intrigues of the French Republic with the native princes, and by the restlessness displayed by Tippoo Sultan and the Mahrattas, Wellesley determined to draw as many as possible of the independent states into one sphere of influence, by inducing them to enter into treaties which placed their foreign policy and their armed force at the disposition of the East India Company.

This policy led to the following results:

(1) In 1798 the Nizam concluded a subsidiary treaty and accepted British suzerainty.

(2) In 1799 Tippoo Sultan, detected in intrigues with the French, was attacked and slain. Of his territories the central plateau of *Mysore* was given back to the old Hindoo dynasty, which Hyder Ali had dethroned; but (*a*) the coast-region in *Canara* round Mangalore and Honore and (*b*) the districts in the southern plain around *Coimbatore* were annexed, while (*c*) the northern part of Tippoo's dominion, as far as the Toongabuddra, were nominally ceded to our ally the Nizam, but administered by the Company.

(3) In 1800 the small principality of *Tanjore*, in 1801 the wide realm of the Nawab of the *Carnatic* were annexed, in consequence of the misgovernment of their rulers.

(4) In 1801 the Nawab of *Oude*, whose tribute was always in arrear, was forced to surrender to the Company (*a*) *Rohilcund*, (*b*) the districts of *Allahabad* and *Corah*, and (*c*) the district of *Goruckpore* on his eastern frontier.

(5) In 1802 the Peishwa Bajee Row, expelled from Poonah, took refuge with the British and signed the treaty of Bassein, by which he put himself under the Company's protection. This led to a war with the two chief Mahratta powers, Scindia and the Rajah of Nagpore. After a successful struggle waged by Lord Lake and Sir Arthur Wellesley, the two princes were compelled to sign the treaties of Surjee Anjengaum and Deogaum, by which Scindia ceded (*a*) *Delhi* and the fortresses of the *Ganges-Jumna Doab* (Delta), with all his possessions in Northern India; (*b*) *Ahmedabad*, *Baroach*, and the rest of his dominions in *Gujarat*; (*c*) *Ahmednugger*, and its district in the *Deccan*; and the Rajah of Nagpore surrendered *Cuttack* and his other lands in *Orissa*, on the shore of the Bay of Bengal. He also ceded his possessions in *Berar* to our ally the Nizam. In addition, many princes of Northern India, hitherto vassals to Scindia, now had to transfer their allegiance to the Company. The territories in the Ganges valley, taken from Oude in 1801 and from Scindia in 1803, were formed into the new Lieutenant-Governorship of the 'North-West Provinces.'

Meanwhile the treaty of Amiens (1802) had given to the British the Isle of *Ceylon*, which had been captured from the Dutch in 1795, when the Batavian Republic joined the French.

After the departure of Lord Wellesley from India the British boundaries stood still for nearly ten years. His immediate successors, Cornwallis and Barlow, were averse to the policy

of expansion, and Lord Minto (1807–13) devoted his main attention to the conquest of French and Dutch possessions in the Indian Ocean (Java, Bourbon, Mauritius, &c.), which were restored at the general pacification of 1814.

The Marquis of Hastings (1813–23) completed the establishment of the Company as the supreme suzerain power over the whole of India.

(*a*) As the result of the Nepaulese War of 1814–5 we occupied the mountainous region of *Kumaon*, and took over the homage of the rajahs of the adjoining hills of *Gurhwal* (1815).

(*b*) In 1817 the Peishwa Bajee Rao endeavoured to shake off the British supremacy over the Mahrattas. His attack was aided by the regents of the Holkar state, and at the same moment the Bhonslays in Nagpore rose in arms. This great Mahratta war ended in the annexation of the whole of the Peishwa's dominions; those on the west coast were added to the Bombay Presidency, and those in Central India, together with a broad tract taken from the Rajah of Nagpore, were formed into the 'Saugor and Nerbudda Territories.' At the same time the Holkar family had to cede some of their lands to the Bombay Presidency, but neither they nor the Bhonslays were (like the Peishwa) entirely dispossessed. In consequence of this war all the princes of Northern India (in Rajpootana, Bundelcund, and the Mahanuddy valley) who had not yet accepted the British suzerainty, now made treaties of alliance with the Company. An outpost was placed in the midst of Rajpootana by the annexation of the district of *Ajmere* and *Mhairwarra* (1818). The British now reigned supreme from the Sutlej to Cape Comorin.

During the administration of Hastings' successor, Lord Amherst (1823–8), a war with the King of Burma ended in the annexation of *Assam*, on the north-eastern frontier of Bengal, and of the two outlying coast-provinces of *Araçan* and *Tenasserim*, in the Indo-Chinese peninsula, beyond the limits of India proper (1826).

The rule of Lord William Bentinck (1828–36) saw only the annexation of the small regions of *Cachar*, on the Bengal frontier (1831), and *Coorg*, between Mysore and Canara (1832), anarchical hill states where our intervention was made imperative by internal disorders.

Bentinck was followed by Lord Auckland, whose interference in the domestic affairs of the Durani and Baruckzai claimants for the throne of Caubul led to the First Afghan War (1839–42), which resulted in no permanent gain of territory, but led indirectly to the annexation of *Scinde*. The Ameers of that country, accused of intriguing against the British during the last Caubul campaign, were attacked and beaten by Sir Charles Napier. The new Governor-General, Lord Ellenborough (1842–4), thereupon annexed Scinde, with the exception of the State of Khyrpore, which was left to the friendly Ameer Ali Morad.

In the time of Lord Hardinge (1844–8) we became involved in the most important and arduous war which had been seen since the days of Wellesley. The only independent State of importance left in India was the Sikh kingdom in the Punjaub, which had been built up by the genius and energy of Runjeet Sing (1792–1839). This prince had always acted as the friend of Great Britain, and confined his conquests to the lands north of the Sutlej. He stripped the Afghans of Mooltan (1818) of the Derajat in 1819–21, of Cashmere in 1819, and of Peshawur in 1834. When he was dead, the control of his realm fell into the hands of the powerful but mutinous Khalsa army which he had organized. After murdering several of Runjeet's successors, this arrogant soldiery resolved to try conclusions with the British, and crossed the Sutlej in 1845. There followed the hard-fought First Sikh War (1845–6), which ended in the punishment of the aggressors by the annexation of their lands south of the Sutlej, together with the district of Jullundur, while Cashmere was taken from them and given (or sold) to one of their chiefs, Golab Sing, as a separate State (1846). Undismayed by the result of the first war, the Sikhs again took arms in 1848. After a struggle even more desperate than that of 1845–6, they were crushed, and the whole Punjaub annexed to the territory of the Company, by Lord Dalhousie (1848–56), who had succeeded Hardinge as governor-general. No independent power now remained within the peninsula (1849).

Dalhousie was an advocate of the policy of advance and annexation. In 1853, after the Second Burmese War, he confiscated *Rangoon* and all *Lower Burma* from the King of Ava. Within the peninsula he pursued the policy of taking over any native State where the direct line of succession died out, or where misgovernment was persistent and hopeless. He laid hands on the small Mahratta States of *Sattara* (1848) and *Jhansi* (1854). *Nagpore*, the remnant of the old Bhonslay State, was taken over in 1853, while the kingdom of *Oude*, the oldest and almost the most important of our subsidiary allies, was annexed in 1856. The Rajah of *Sumbulpore* saw his dominions confiscated for rebellion in 1849. The Nizam, whose tribute was in arrears and whose realm was utterly misgoverned, was made to hand over *Berar* (which he had held since 1803) to the Company in 1853. Thus Dalhousie's annexations vie with those of Wellesley and Hastings. He had hardly departed from India when the Great Mutiny of the Sepoy army broke out (1857–8), the final result of which was the abolition of the East India Company, and the assumption of direct control over India by the British Government on September 1, 1858.

Since that date there have been no annexations of importance within the old borders of the peninsula, the policy pursued with regard to recalcitrant feudatory states being no longer confiscation, but the removal of the offending ruler, or the temporary administration of his lands by a British resident. But there have been many advances into the lands to the east and north-west of India. The Second Afghan War (1878–80) was followed by the annexation of *Quetta*, the *Kurram Valley*, and other districts on the south-east of Afghanistan. In 1886 the remainder of the old kingdom of *Burma* was conquered as the result of the Third Burmese War. In 1893–95, in consequence of the fear of Russian aggression, our suzerainty was extended over *Chitral*, *Hunza*, *Nagar*, *Gilgit*, and other remote regions to the north of Cashmere. The advances of the British boundaries on the trans-Indus frontier, among the Afridis and other hill tribes, are too irregular and complicated to be marked on anything but a very large-scale map. Even at the present moment it is hard to give any definite line as the limit of our suzerainty in this direction.*

C. OMAN.

* As these two maps have been drawn with the object of illustrating the growth of British rule in India, the native names have been written in the forms customary among Englishmen during the period of conquest and consolidation. The spelling in the preceding Plate (LXXXIII) corresponds more nearly with the 'scientific' system now in official use.

LXXXV

EUROPEAN EXPLORATIONS AND COLONIES FROM THE FIFTEENTH TO THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

LXXXV

EUROPEAN EXPLORATIONS AND COLONIES FROM THE FIFTEENTH TO THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

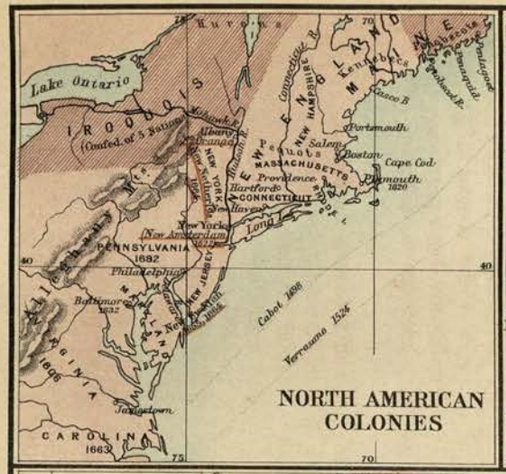
IN the present preface it is impossible to do more than to point out a few main features in the expansion of the European world in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries. The accompanying map includes three separate periods—(1) the period of discovery, (2) the period of Portuguese and Spanish ascendency, and (3) the period of Dutch, English, and French enterprise.

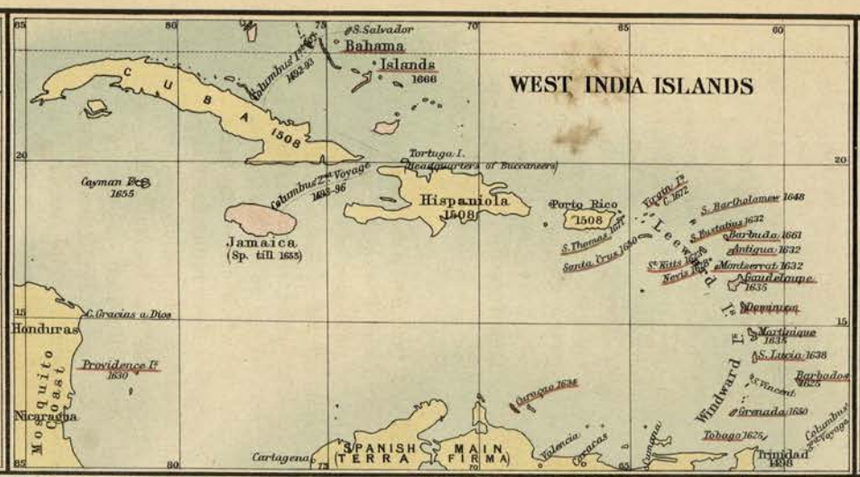
1. The Period of Discovery. The reasons why the end of the fifteenth century witnessed the development of maritime discovery were partly intellectual, partly economic, and partly political. From about the year 1420 the mariner's compass came into general use. The invention of the astrolabe, and of tables, to determine the latitude, encouraged navigation, while the study of geography was made popular by the printing of Ptolemy's treatise. The close connexion between the fields of thought and of action is shown by the correspondence between Columbus and Toscanelli. Meanwhile economic motives were urging the finding of a new 'way to where the spices grow,' since the overland route to the East was closed through the conquests of the Ottoman Turks. At the same time the consolidation of the European monarchies rendered possible the undertaking of organized expeditions. The positions of Portugal and Spain, geographically and politically, account for their priority, though it must be noted that the brain power on which they relied was still Italian. The Moses of this exodus was undoubtedly Prince Henry the Navigator (1394–1460). His whole life was devoted to the study of astronomy and navigation, and to the elaboration of those plans which after his death bore their full fruits. The landing of Vasco de Gama at Calicut in 1498 was but the culminating scene in an action which had been busily going on from 1412. Meanwhile a rival way of reaching the Indies from the west was finding advocates. The mistaken calculations of geographers lessened the size of the world by one-sixth, so that the distance between Europe and Asia seemed less formidable. Toscanelli's map, which Columbus used, placed Antilia (the West Indies) on almost the same longitude as the Azores, and Columbus believed, when he had discovered Cuba, that he had reached Cipango (Japan). Even after the discovery of the Pacific by Vasco Nuñez de Balboa in 1513, and after the shape of South America had been established with tolerable correctness, the known parts of North America were still figured as the coast portions of the great Asiatic continent. The discovery of the New World with all its consequences was at the time a mere incident in the quest of the Indies. This incident however opened out a new motive for exploration, viz. territorial sovereignty, as opposed to mere trade. By the Papal Bull of 1493[1], so much of the unknown world as seemed worth possessing was divided between Spain and Portugal; the former receiving all the lands that lay west, and the latter all that lay east, of a line drawn 100 leagues 'towards the west and south' from the Azores and Cape Verde Islands. By the Treaty of Tordesillas in 1494, this line was extended to 370 leagues from the same point. It was forgotten, however, that a globe has two sides, so that the rival claims of Spain and Portugal to the Moluccas and Banda Islands were nearly leading to war. The expedition of Magellan in 1519, undertaken on behalf of the Spanish claims, first proved by demonstration the roundness of the earth.

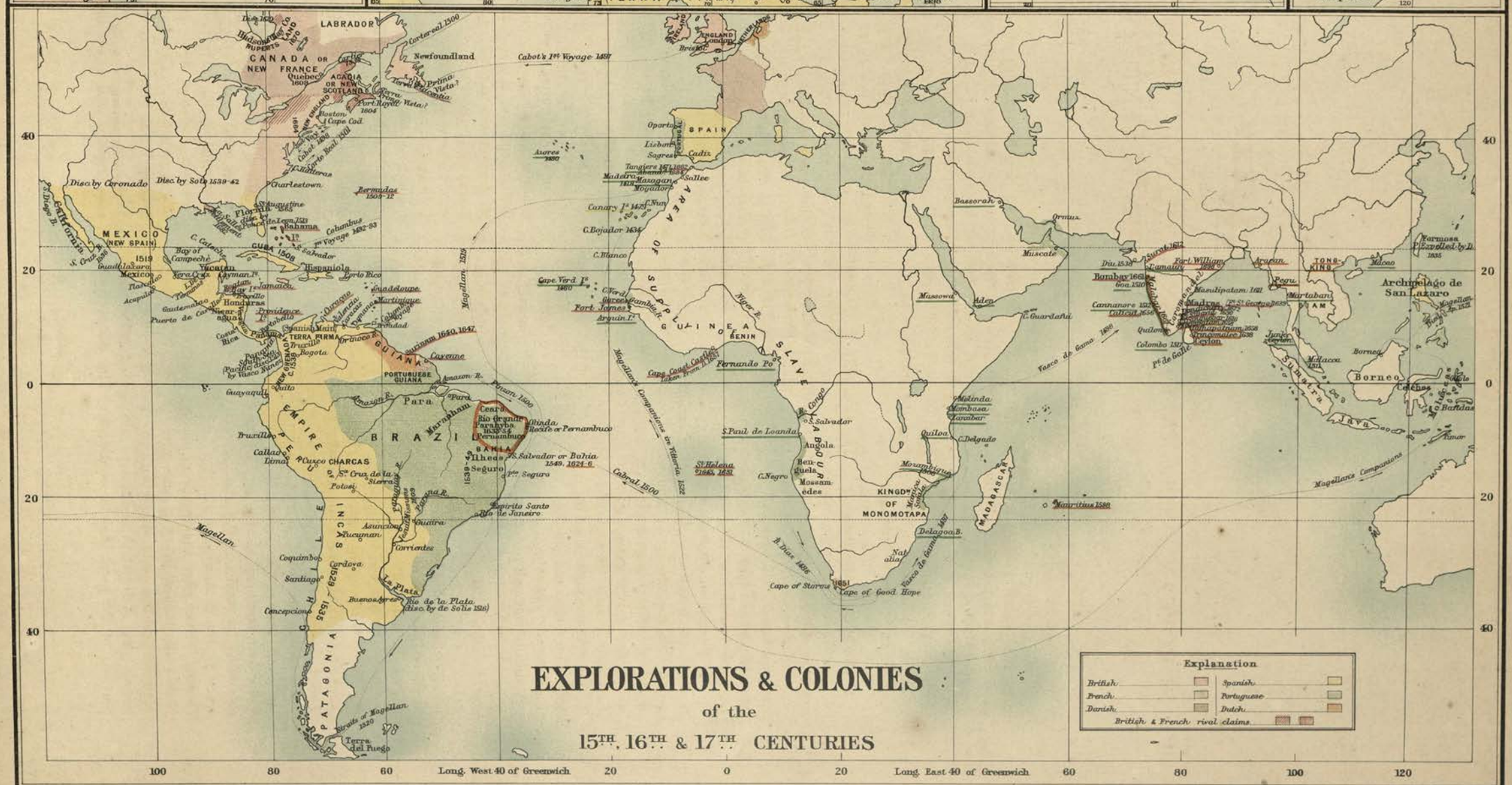
2. The Period of Portuguese and Spanish Ascendency. The path being thus prepared, Spain and Portugal entered upon their colonial empires. The original aim of Portugal had been trade, and, though the sending out of Corte Real's expedition in 1500 and the acquisition of Brazil proved the desire for territorial sovereignty, still, so far as the East was concerned, Portugal remained upon the whole faithful to her first object, and the African possessions were rather held as stepping-stones to the East than as ends in themselves. The first aim of the Portuguese, on entering the Indian Ocean, was to possess themselves of the great Arab emporia of Calicut, Ormuz, Aden, and Malacca. The most characteristic feature of the Spanish colonial empire was the rapidity with which it became crystallized into an elaborate system, which received little subsequent modification. This state of things had its geographical reflex, and the student of historical geography is struck by the monotony which prevails in successive maps of the Spanish possessions at different dates.

3. The Period of Dutch, English, and French Enterprise. Of the new nations the Dutch were the first to appear upon the scene. Themselves a nation of traders, they naturally fastened upon the eastern trade as their main object of attack. The Portuguese power was weak, partly because it had been raised on an insufficient basis of territorial

[1] The exact meaning of the Bull is not clear. It would seem in any case to assign to Spain so much of North America as lay south of 44° north latitude.







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sovereignty; partly because it had been the outcome of individual and not of national effort; and partly because the Portuguese were now fighting for Spain and not on their own behalf, the Portuguese possessions between 1580 and 1640 being part of the Spanish dominions. How complete was the triumph of the Dutch is shown by the clause in the Treaty of Westphalia which compelled Spain and Portugal to trade with the East only by Cape Horn. An inset map on the plate represents the changes effected in the Indian Archipelago by the Dutch successes. Until 1619 the seat of government was in the little island of Amboyna; but in that year it was transferred to the new city of Batavia in Java. Their supremacy in the East, however, by no means exhausted the energies of the Dutch. For thirty years (1624–1654) they carried on a determined effort to wrest Brazil from Portugal, but here the conditions of the struggle were more favourable to Portugal, and the last Dutch possession, Recife, finally surrendered in January, 1654. The Dutch were also rivals of the Portuguese in West Africa, though here there were also present English, French, and Danes. The importance of the Guinea coast (shown in an inset map) to the European Powers lay in the fact that it was the seat of the lucrative trade in slave labour to the American plantations. The capture by the Dutch of S. Jorge de Mina was a serious blow, considering how dependent Brazil was on African labour. So long as the slave trade lasted, West Africa and the West Indies were parts of a single whole.

John Cabot was the pioneer of English colonization, but he was a pioneer born before his time. It would require a map on a very extensive scale to record the numerous English expeditions by which the colonizing faculty was developed before a colonial empire was possible. The gold found in the Spanish dominions, and the search for a new route to the Indies by the North-West, were the main motives at work prompting colonization, but nothing effectual could be done until the pretensions of Spain to the empire of the West had been curbed. It was the defeat of the Armada which rendered possible a British North America. Even then, however, the power of Spain remained too great to allow of her American possessions being wrested from her. All that the other Powers could attempt was to occupy such portions of the new world as remained vacant, although the capture of Jamaica by the English in 1655 was an exception to the general rule. This needs to be said because the map of the West Indies on the accompanying plate shows, on the face of it, a state of things very similar to the conditions of to-day. It must be remembered, then, that these islands were at first regarded as a Spanish preserve, and the position of other nations in these seas wore something of an unauthorized and precarious character. The connexion of England and France throughout these years with the buccaneers is of significance, and the English settlements on the Mosquito Coast, on the mainland, and in the Bay islands, remained of a semi-piratical nature. Still, as the seventeenth century went on, the claims of Spain to predominance in the West Indies became more and more unreal, and at its close the real struggle for pre-eminence was recognized to be between France and England.

So far as trade was concerned, although the East India Company received its charter in 1600, England for a long time took a secondary place. The protection of the Navigation Acts was required before England could compete with Holland in the carrying trade. In the East Indies the English were roughly handled by the Dutch. It has, however, been pointed out that this opposition was a blessing in disguise, since it compelled the English Company to transfer the seat of its government from the Indian Archipelago to India. The only place in the Indian Archipelago wherein the English at any time during this period had territorial sovereignty, before the building of Fort York in Sumatra in 1685, was Lantore, one of the Banda Islands.

A special difficulty arises to the map-maker from the wideness and vagueness of ancient grants, and the overlapping which was thus inevitable. The framers of such grants were generally ignorant of the geography of the lands dealt with. Thus the first Virginia charter of 1606 claimed for England the whole of North America between 34° and 45° north latitude, while the charter to the Company of New France in 1627 dealt with North America from Canada to Florida. In this state of things no map can be really accurate which does more than mark actual settlements, leaving the unoccupied country a blank. Such a course cannot, however, be taken in a map on a small scale. Moreover, it may be doubted whether such a method would so correctly represent the general lines of historical movement as does a more rough and ready manner of treatment. A conspicuous example of this vagueness was the case of Acadia. How much did this term include? The question is too intricate to be entered upon here; it may be stated, however, that it had never received a final answer, and that it ceased to have a meaning after the expulsion of the French from Canada. One of the inset maps represents generally the condition of things with regard to the North American colonies during the seventeenth century. It was not till near the close of that century that La Salle, by his expedition to the mouths of the Mississippi, laid the foundations of the future French colony of Louisiana, but on the north there was almost continuous warfare between the English and French: on the one hand the English claimed Acadia as New Scotland, and Port Royal was taken by them in 1629, 1655, and 1690; on the other hand, the French were continually urging the Indians to encroach upon the extreme northern settlements of New England, and the respective boundaries of Canada and Acadia and of the British Colonies were in constant dispute. No map can attempt to bring out the great distinction between the English and French possessions. The English colonies consisted of farms and settlements of farmers—colonists in the strict sense of the term—who for the most part had sought the New World to obtain religious liberty. The French deliberately rejected this kind of colony, and so their colonies remained mere forts and settlements of soldiers, surrounded by a certain number of priests, hunters, and traders in furs. The spirit of adventure by itself gives birth to colonists but hardly to colonies, and it is doubtful how far Virginia alone would have ultimately succeeded, had not new motives surrounded it by New England, Maryland, Carolina, and, at a later date, Pennsylvania. The importance to England of obtaining a continuous line of possessions between the Spanish and French colonies cannot be over-estimated, and the relinquishment in 1673 of the precarious settlements at Surinam was a cheap price for the English to pay for the acquiescence of Holland in New Netherlands remaining undisputed British territory.

HUGH E. EGERTON.

LXXXVI

EUROPEAN COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES AFTER THE PEACE OF UTRECHT (1713)

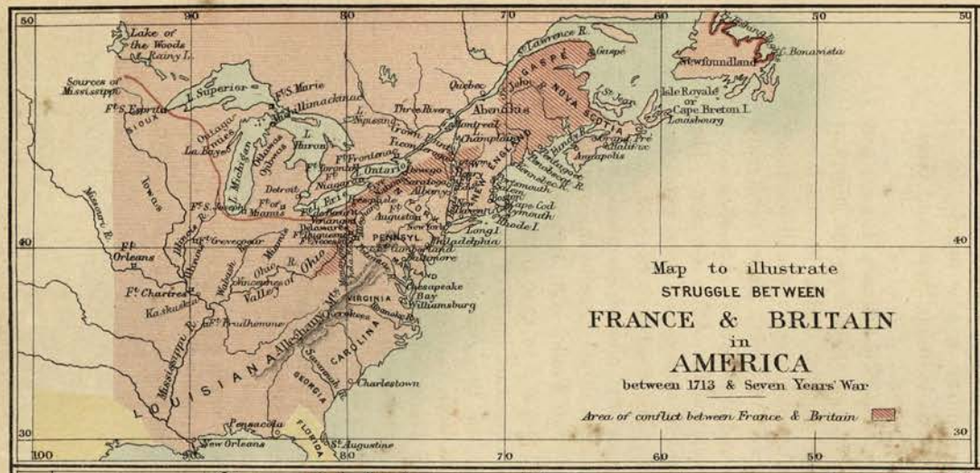
LXXXVI

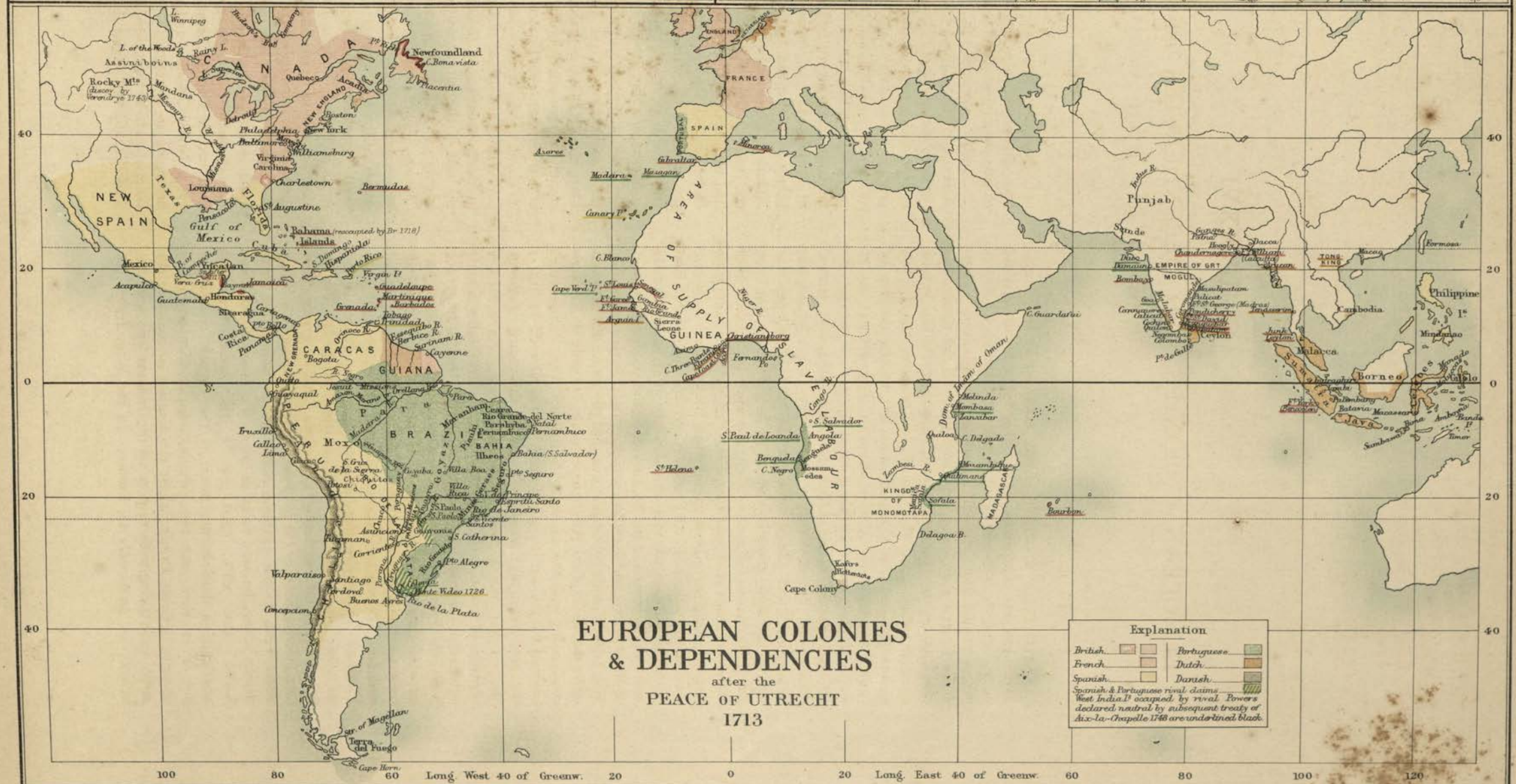
EUROPEAN COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES AFTER THE PEACE OF UTRECHT (1713)

1. THE Peace of Utrecht (April, 1713), so far as colonial expansion was concerned, merely afforded a breathing time in the struggle between Great Britain and France for supremacy. Difficulties were shirked rather than solved. Thus, while France abandoned any claim to territorial rights over the lands of the Hudson's Bay Company, the all-important question what were the boundaries between the French possessions and the Company was left to the decision of commissioners (art. x), who, although they were to report within a year, never in fact entered upon their duties. By art. xii France ceded 'New Scotland, otherwise termed Acadia, in its entirety, in conformity with its ancient boundaries,' and the delimitation of such boundaries was left to the same commissioners. In fact, however, not even the preliminaries for such delimitation were undertaken until after the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748. At the same time nothing could have been vaguer than the expression *Acadia*. According to the original French view, afterwards maintained by Great Britain, Acadia included the portion of Canada south of the mouth of the St. Lawrence, the present provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, as well as part of Maine. The latest French contention was that the name did not even cover the whole of the Acadian peninsula, but only its southern coast, along with the adjoining belt of country. The ground covered by the British and French claims differed in size in the proportion of twenty to one. In this state of things another war was a mere question of time. As a further occasion of future strife, *Cape Breton* and all the other islands situated in the mouth of the gulf or river of the St. Lawrence remained French, and the right of erecting fortifications was expressly maintained (art. xiii). Hitherto Cape Breton had been unoccupied, but thenceforth Louisbourg, its new capital and fort, became an important factor in the struggle with England. In *Newfoundland*, France abandoned Placentia and all other places, but the right was reserved to the French fishermen of fishing during the season, and of drying their fish, erecting huts for the purpose, 'along the coast from Cape Bona Vista to the extreme north of the island, and from thence along the west coast as far as the place called Point Riche' (art. xiii). Art. xv of the treaty remained absolutely a dead letter: under it the French covenanted not to interfere with the Five Nations, or with any tribes friendly to Great Britain, whilst the English entered into the same undertaking with respect to the Indians who were the subjects of, or friendly to, France. In the West Indies the only change was that *St. Christopher* (*St. Kitts*), which had been shared between England and France, became the exclusive possession of the former (art. xii).

Closely connected with the Peace of Utrecht was the Assiento, signed March 26, 1713. Under this the English obtained the monopoly of supplying the American possessions of Spain with negroes at a fixed price for a period of thirty years (May 1, 1713–1743). 144,000 were to be introduced in all, at the rate of 4,800 a year. All the Spanish American ports were to be open to this trade, and certain lands were to be assigned in the river Plate (La Plata) for the subsistence of the negroes. A further provision (art. xlii) allowed the Company to dispatch one ship of 500 tons a year to Spanish America for the purposes of general trade. The rights under the Assiento were vested in the South Sea Company, which had been set on foot in 1711. The bargain proved far from lucrative, and its historical significance now mainly lies in the occasions of quarrel it caused between Spain and Great Britain.

Apart from the struggle in America between France and Great Britain, dealt with below, and apart from the efforts of the French to oust the English from India (for which see Plate LXXXIV), the present period does not call for much comment from the colonial point of view. Under the Treaty of Utrecht between France and Portugal, France abandoned its claims to the territory at the mouths of the *Amazon*. The period after the Peace of Utrecht witnessed a great extension in the boundaries of *Brazil*. The discovery of gold, about the end of the seventeenth century, and of diamonds, some twenty years later, gave increased importance to the southern districts. The provinces of San Paulo and Minas Geraes were separated from Rio in 1710, and in 1720 these two were separated from each other. The exact limits of Brazil on the south remained undefined. In the Amsterdam Mercator Atlas of 1636 S. Vicente had been marked as the southernmost position in Brazil, and S. Paulo had been included among the adjacent regions of the province of La Plata. In fact, however, the Portuguese claimed that their dominion reached as far south as the river Plate, and the presence of Nova Colonia on that river was an overt proof of such claims. Under the Peace of Utrecht between Spain and Portugal (February, 1715) Nova Colonia 'and its territory' were recognized as belonging to Portugal. The Portuguese, however, allowed themselves to be forestalled by Spain in the foundation of *Monte Video* (1726), and under the abortive Treaty of Limits, 1750,




CANADA
NEW SPAIN
Gulf of Mexico
CARACAS
GUIANA
BRAZIL
AREA OF SUPPLY OF SLAVES
GUINEA
EMPIRE OF GT MOGUL
KINGDOM OF MONOMOTAPA
Cape Colony
Bermudas
Bahama Islands (recaptured by Br 1718)
Newfoundland
Acadia
Quebec
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Williamsburg
Virginia
Carolina
Charlestown
Louisiana
Florida
St. Augustine
Pensacola
Mexico
Vera Cruz
Acapulco
Jamaica
Guatemala
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Bogota
Quito
Lima
Truxillo
Valparaiso
Santiago
Cordova
Buenos Ayres
Rio de la Plata
Monte Video 1726
Conception
Str. of Magellan
Terra del Fuego
Cape Horn
Rio de Janeiro
Bahia (S. Salvador)
Pernambuco
Maranhan
Para
Cayenne
Surinam R.
Essequibo R.
Berbice R.
Demerara R.
Orinoco R.
Rio Grande del Norte
Parahyba
Natal
Ilheos
Porto Seguro
Espirito Santo
St. Catherina
Porto Alegre
Assumption
Canary Is
Madeira
Azores
Gibraltar
Cape Verd Is
C. Blanco
C. Bojador
C. Guardafui
Fernando Po
St. Helena
Ascension
St. Paul de Loanda
Benguela
C. Negro
Mossamedes
Angola
S. Salvador
Congo R.
Zaire R.
Niger R.
Gambia R.
Sierra Leone
Cape Mesurado
Grand Bassa
Cape Three Points
Gaboon R.
Arguin I.
Goree
Senegal R.
Portendic
Mogador
Tangier
Gibraltar
Malaga
Minorca
Portugal
Spain
France
England
Arabian Sea
Punjab
Bombay
Goa
Malabar Coast
Coromandel Coast
Ceylon
Pt de Galle
Bengal
Ganges R.
Patna
Dacca
Chandernagore
Calcutta
Orissa
Madras
Pondicherry
Masulipatam
Goa
Surat
Cambay
Gulf of Cambay
Gulf of Persia
Gulf of Oman
Indus R.
Delagoa B.
Sofala
Mozambique
Quiloa
C. Delgado
Melinda
Mombasa
Zanzibar
Comoro Is
Madagascar
Bourbon
Malacca
Sumatra
Java
Borneo
Celebes
Philippine Is
Mindanao
Cambodia
Formosa
Macao
Japan
Moluccas
Timor
Batavia
Macassar
Amboyna
Banda Is
Celebes Sea
Java Sea
Sunda Str.
Malacca Str.
Straits of Banca
Palembang
Siam
Tonquin
Pegu
Arracan
Ava
Bay of Bengal
Hindostan
Mogul
Deccan
Malabar
Coromandel
Ceylon
Punjab
Delhi
Agra
Lahore
Cashmere
Persia
Tartary
China
Japan
Kamschatka
Behring Str.
Behring I.
Aleutian Is
Nootka Sound
Columbia R.
Mississippi R.
Missouri R.
Ohio R.
Illinois R.
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Lake of the Woods
Rainy L.
Winnipeg
Hudson's Bay
Rocky Mts
Assiniboins
Mandans
Texas
Louisiana
Florida
Georgia
Carolina
Virginia
Maryland
Pennsylvania
New England
Nova Scotia
Gaspe
Anticosti
Labrador
Hudson Str.
Davis Str.
Greenland
Iceland
Spitzbergen
Nova Zembla
Baffin's Bay
Melville I.
Prince of Wales I.
Victoria I.
Banks I.
Parry's Islands
Boothia Land
Regent's Inlet
Fox Channel
Cape Farewell
Cape Walsingham
Cape Chudleigh
Cape Charles
Cape Breton I.
Isle Royale
Newfoundland
Cape Race
Cape Ray
Cape Bonavista
Cape Rosier
Cape Gaspe
Cape Tormentine
Cape Sable
Cape Cod
Cape Henlopen
Cape Hatteras
Cape Fear
Cape Florida
Cape Catoche
Cape Antonio
Cape St. Antonio
Cape St. Roque
Cape Blanco
Cape Verd
Cape Palmas
Cape Lopez
Cape Negro
Cape Frio
Cape Horn
Cape Colony
Cape Agulhas
Cape Guardafui
Cape Comorin
Cape Negrais
Cape Romania
Cape Three Points
Cape Mesurado

Nova Colonia was ceded to Spain. Further north, Portugal had been more successful in the settlement (1737) of Rio Grande, which was declared Portuguese by the same treaty. Meanwhile, towards the interior, the Paulistas and people of Minas Geraes were penetrating, behind Bahia and Piauhi, into the region which became in 1737 the separate province of Goyaz, while from Cuyaba the Portuguese were opening out the vast area (200,000 square miles) which afterwards became the province of Mato Grosso. No such energy marked the action of the Spanish Colonies. In these the most important fact was the influence exercised on the Indians by the Jesuit missionaries. The story of *Paraguay* under its theocratic government is well known, but indeed the less settled districts of Spanish and indeed Portuguese America were covered with a network of missions, the influence of which upon the political history was far-reaching.

The *Kingdom of Monomotapa*, in South Africa, has been marked as in Plates LXXXV and LXXXVII because it bulks large in the maps and books published at these periods. At the same time it must be remembered that the supposed suzerainty of the Monomotapa over the neighbouring tribes was in fact of a very shadowy character.

2. The small map of the North American Colonies endeavours to bring out the progress of events between the Peace of Utrecht and the outbreak of the Seven Years' War. Acadia, as we have seen, had been transferred to Great Britain, but with uncertain boundaries; nor was any attempt made, for many years, to render it an effective British colony. The expectation was that it would be settled from New England, but fear of the Indians and the French, and the strain which constant war had placed upon the colonies' resources, rendered this impossible. On the north of New England, France, through the medium of the Abenaki Indians, was able to carry on a harassing guerilla warfare. The most important question, however, awaiting solution was—which Power should hold the valley of the *Mississippi* and the great Lakes, and thus obtain the control of the West? Although the French, for the time, prevailed, as against the British Colonies, their kind of development carried with it the seeds of future failure. Genuine colonization was hampered by the despotic character of the government and the mutual jealousies of rival officials. Thus no attempt was made to turn to account the ground opened out by La Vérendrye, who explored (1730–40) a vast region hitherto unknown, and diverted a lucrative fur trade from the Hudson's Bay Company, and who rendered the tract secure by the erection of forts on Rainy Lake, the Lake of the Woods, Lakes Winnipeg and Manitoba, and on the rivers Winnipeg and Assiniboin. In the same way the discovery by the younger La Vérendrye of the Rocky Mountains remained without fruits. In this state of things it is obvious that the colouring on the map does not represent actual results. What is intended to be emphasized is that France had obtained military command of the country, and, by a chain of forts, had gradually wedged the British Colonies into the district between the Alleghany Mountains and the sea. The lack of unity in the Colonial Governments, the extreme jealousy on the part of the Colonial Assemblies of the Governors, the ignorant procrastination of the Home authorities, all played into the hands of the French. The building of Oswego, on Lake Ontario, was almost the solitary counterblast, for many years, to the various French aggressions, and the cost of its building was never recouped by the New York Assembly to Governor Burnet. As a specimen of the wrong methods of both English and French may be noted their treatment of the Ohio Valley. The French, it is true, at length recognized that the fork of the Ohio formed, along with Niagara, the key of the West, but the assertion of possession in 1749 by Céleron de Bienville would have availed little, had the Ohio Company (1750) received intelligent support from the Home and Colonial authorities. Fort Duquesne was not erected till 1754. Its erection completed the chain, consisting of Niagara, Detroit, Michillimackinac, La Baye, Fort Chartres, &c., which joined Canada to Louisiana, and closed in the British Colonies. Meanwhile the French had penetrated to the south of Lake Champlain and erected there a fort at Crown Point (Carillon) (1730). In this state of things, France at the time of the official declaration of war in 1756, after the decisive victory at the Monongaleha (1755), had the Pennsylvanian and Virginian frontiers at its mercy. Cape Breton, with Louisbourg, had been again restored[1] to France by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748, in exchange for Madras, so that on this side also the military position of France was strong. Her cause was further strengthened by the appointment, in 1756, of Montcalm to the command of the French forces in North America. On the British side, the most important point was that effective means were at last being taken to make Nova Scotia, in fact as well as in name, a British colony. Halifax was founded in 1749, and the banishment of the Acadians took place in 1755.

HUGH E. EGERTON.

[1] It had been taken by New England troops in 1745.

LXXXVII

EUROPEAN COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES, 1763

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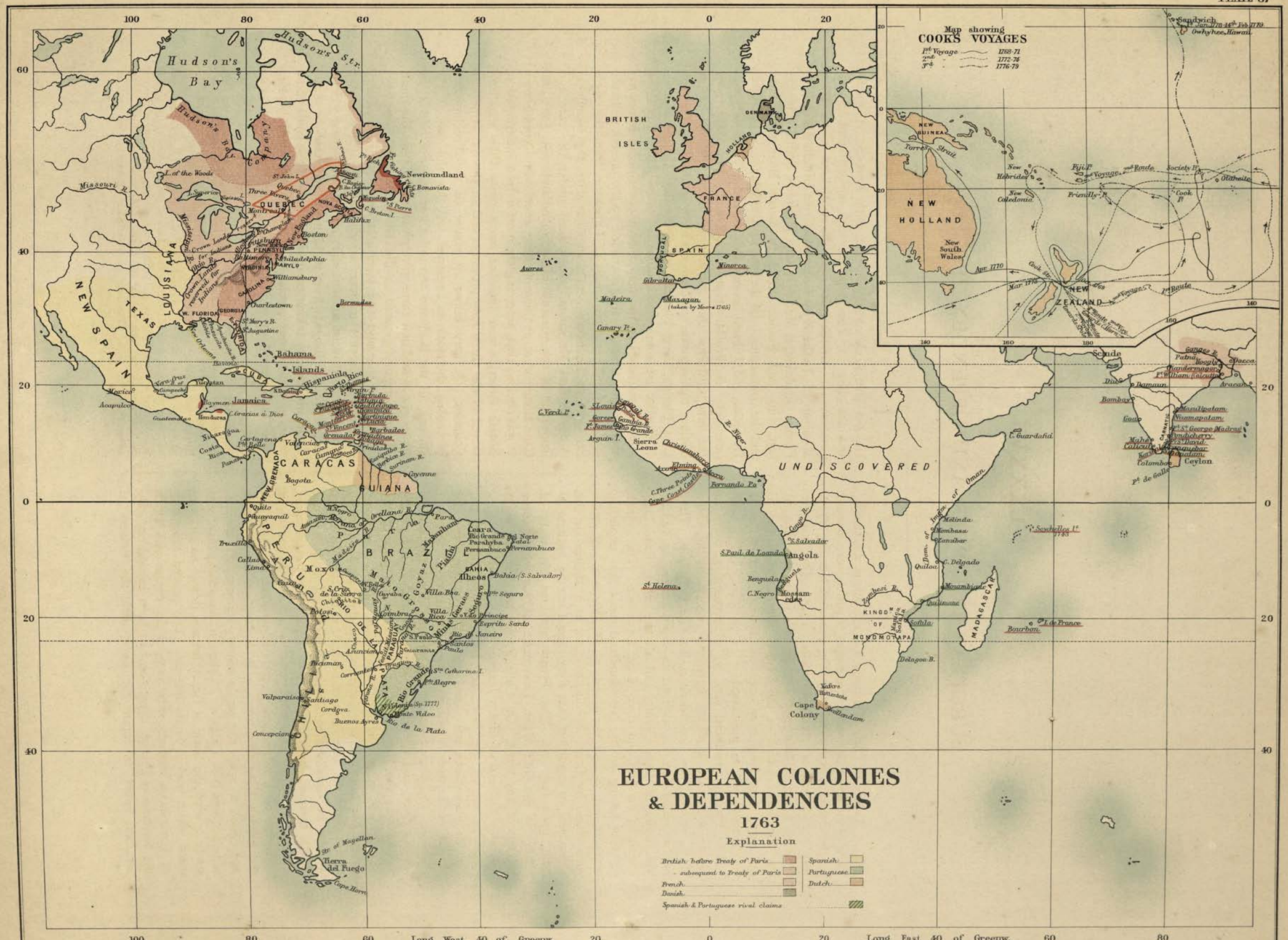
THE Treaty of Paris (February 10, 1763) was the closing scene of an action the successive stages of which were marked by the Peace of Ryswick, 1697, the Peace of Utrecht, 1713, and the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748. The struggle between Great Britain and France ended, for the time, in the complete triumph of the former. Particular clauses of the treaty may have been open to criticism, but its broad result could not be questioned.

The French renounced (art. iv) all pretensions to *Nova Scotia* or Acadia, in all its parts, and guaranteed the whole of it, with all its dependencies, to Great Britain. They further ceded *Canada*, with all its dependencies, as well as the island of *Cape Breton*, and all the other islands and coasts, in the gulf and river of St. Lawrence. The French right of fishing on the Newfoundland coast was explicitly retained (art. v), and the islands of *St. Pierre* and *Miquelon* were ceded by Great Britain, to serve as a shelter for the fishermen, on condition that they should not be fortified or built upon (art. vi). The French retained the right of fishing in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but not within three leagues of any coast. Off Cape Breton the French might fish at a distance of fifteen leagues (art. v).

Under art. vii the boundary between the British and French possessions was fixed by a line drawn along the middle of the river Mississippi, from its source to the river Iberville, and thence by a line drawn along the middle of this river, and the Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, to the sea: the French ceded the river and port of the Mobile, and everything on the left side of the Mississippi, except the town of New Orleans, and the island on which it was situated. The right of navigation on the Mississippi was to be equally free to the subjects of both nations. While however, by the Treaty of Paris, French *Louisiana* was thus carefully preserved, though reduced in extent, it appeared by a subsequent Proclamation (October, 1763) of the French King that already, in November, 1762, France had ceded to Spain the whole country known as Louisiana, together with New Orleans. Although this arrangement was made behind the back of Great Britain, it was an arrangement which worked in its interest. The proved incapacity of Spain was a welcome substitute for the vigour with which the business of French expansion had been carried on. By art. xx Spain, in return for *Cuba*, with the fortress of Havana (art. xix), ceded '*Florida*, with Fort St. Augustin and the Bay of Pensacola, as well as all that Spain possesses . . . to the east or to the south-east of the river Mississippi.' In the *West Indies*, too, Great Britain restored to France Guadaloupe, Marie Galante, Desirade, and Martinique (art. viii), and France ceded to Great Britain Grenada and the Grenadines. Of the four neutral islands, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago became British, and St. Lucia French (art. ix). A Proclamation in October, 1763, dealt with the new territories thus acquired by Great Britain. Four distinct and separate governments were erected, viz. Quebec, East Florida, West Florida, and Grenada. The boundaries of Quebec are somewhat confusedly stated[1], but it will be seen, by reference to the map, that it contained a somewhat smaller area than the area contained by the present province of Quebec. The whole coast of Labrador, from the river St. John to Hudson's Strait, together with the islands of Anticosti and Magdalen, were placed under the care and inspection of the governor of Newfoundland. St. John and Cape Breton were, at the same time, annexed to Nova Scotia. It was obvious that, accepting the most narrow interpretation, British America now included much more than was contained in the three new provinces and in the old American Colonies. A very important clause of the Proclamation proceeded therefore to 'reserve . . ., for the use of the Indians, all the land and territories not included within the limits of our said new three governments, or within the limits of the territory granted to the Hudson's Bay Company; as also all the land and territories lying to the westward of the sources of the rivers which fall into the sea from west and north-west as aforesaid; and we do hereby strictly forbid . . . all subjects from making any purchases or settlements whatever or taking possession of any of the lands above reserved without our special leave and licence.' All persons who had settled upon such lands were required to quit

[1] The words are—'bounded on the Labrador coast by the river St. John, and from thence by a line drawn from the head of that river, through the Lake St. John to the south end of the Lake Nipissim; from whence the said line, crossing the river St. Lawrence and the Lake Champlain in forty-five degrees of north latitude, passes along the high lands which divide the rivers that empty themselves into the said river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the sea; and also along the north coast of the Baye des Chaleurs, and the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Cape Rosieres, and from thence, crossing the mouth of the river St. Lawrence by the west end of the island of Anticosti, terminates at the aforesaid river St. John.' The boundary is marked in the map by a red line.



Oxford: Clarendon Press

W. & A. K. Johnston, Del. & Lith., Edinburgh.

them. So far as these provisions were intended to protect the interests of the Indians, they may be justified; but their undoubted effect was to furnish a genuine grievance to the American colonists, and to thwart a natural movement towards the opening up of the *hinterland* of the country.

In *West Africa* Great Britain restored to France the island of Goree, and the French ceded and guaranteed to the English the river Senegal, with the forts and factories of St. Louis, Podor, and Galam, and with all the rights and dependencies of the said river Senegal (art. x).

In *India* the condition of things in 1749 was restored, and 'Nattal and Tapanoully,' in Sumatra, were to be given back to Great Britain (art. xi). *Minorca* (art. xii) was further restored to that Power.

'With regard to the Portuguese colonies in America, Africa, or in the East Indies,' it was enacted that, 'if any change shall have happened there, all things shall be restored on the same footing they were in and conformably to the preceding treaties, which subsisted between the courts of France, Spain, and Portugal before the present war' (art. xxi). It will be noticed that, in the case of the Spanish and Portuguese *South American* possessions, such a conclusion settled nothing. By the subsequent Second Treaty of Limits, however (October, 1777), Portugal ceded Colonia, with all its claims upon the north bank of the Plate, to Spain and acknowledged her exclusive right to the navigation of that river. A more important event than the perpetual disputes with regard to boundaries marked the present period. The Jesuits, who had played so leading a part in the history of Spanish South America, were in 1767 expelled from all the Spanish dominions. In Brazil their political importance had been comparatively slight, and therefore their expulsion from that country, which took place in 1759, does not possess the same historical importance. That expulsion had been part of the general policy of the great minister Pombal. It should be noted that the seat of government in Brazil was in 1763 removed to Rio de Janeiro. The importance of the southern provinces, owing to their mineral resources, and the natural advantages of the position of Rio de Janeiro, gave it the preference over Bahia. Mato Grosso, with its capital Villa Bella, had been created a new province in 1753, and Nova Coimbra, upon the Paraguay, was founded in 1776 as a frontier post against Spanish aggression.

In *Africa* the period witnessed a further curtailment of Portuguese power. On the east coast Cape Delgado became the extreme northern limit of their dominions, and on the west Mazagan was finally ceded to the Moors in 1765, its Portuguese inhabitants being removed to Brazil.

The small map on the plate deals with the voyages of Captain Cook. It is of course true that Cook had been, to a great extent, anticipated by previous discoverers, although New Caledonia and the Sandwich Islands were first discovered by him. But he was the first to prove the non-existence of a great southern continent (*Terra Australis incognita*), which had been generally accepted. He further settled the question whether New Holland and New Guinea were distinct islands. It was, however, the action of Cook, in taking possession, in the name of Great Britain, of the eastern portion of New Holland, to which he gave the name of *New South Wales* (April, 1770), which renders his voyage memorable from the point of view of British colonization. It may be that, but for the loss of the American colonies, and the need thereby created for new methods of disposing of convicts, Cook's action might have remained abortive. Still, as things turned out, it undoubtedly led to the birth of a new Greater Britain in the South Pacific, whereby, in the long run, some compensation might be given for the dismemberment caused by the results of the War of Independence.

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LXXXVIII

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AFTER THE TREATY OF 1783

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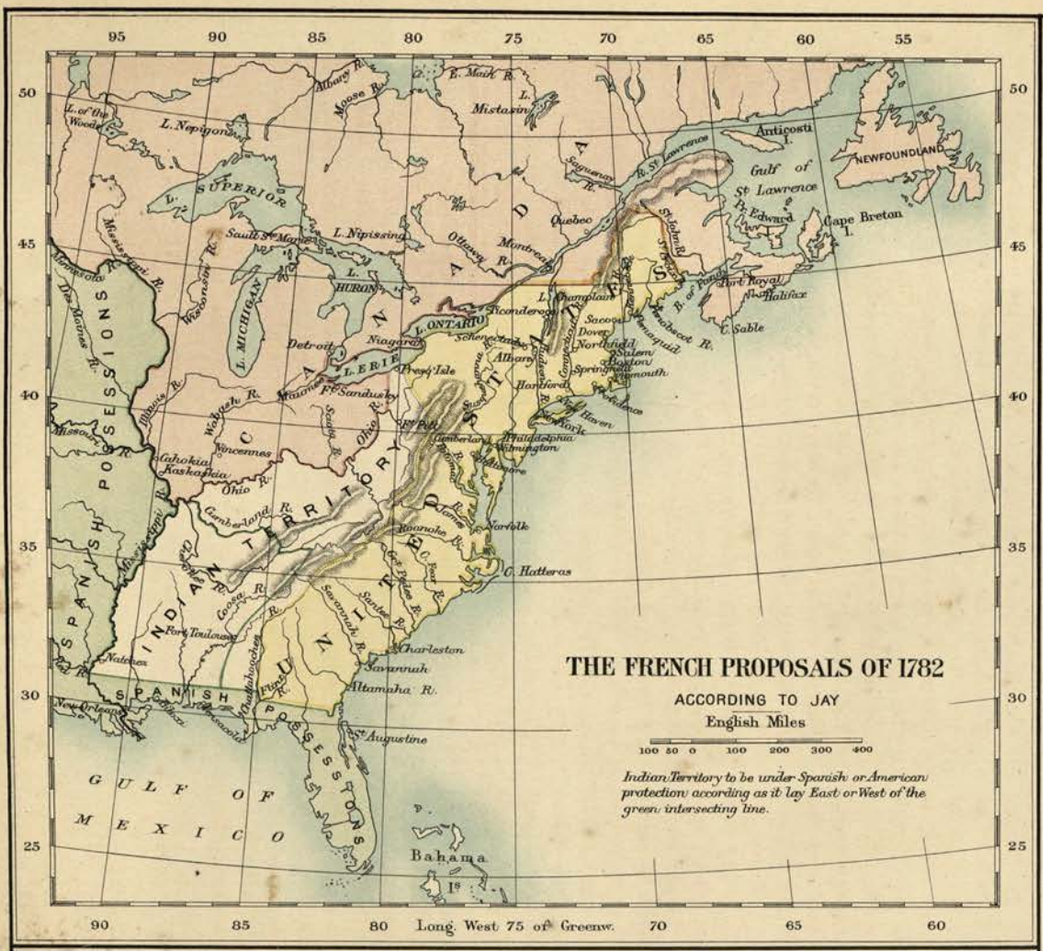
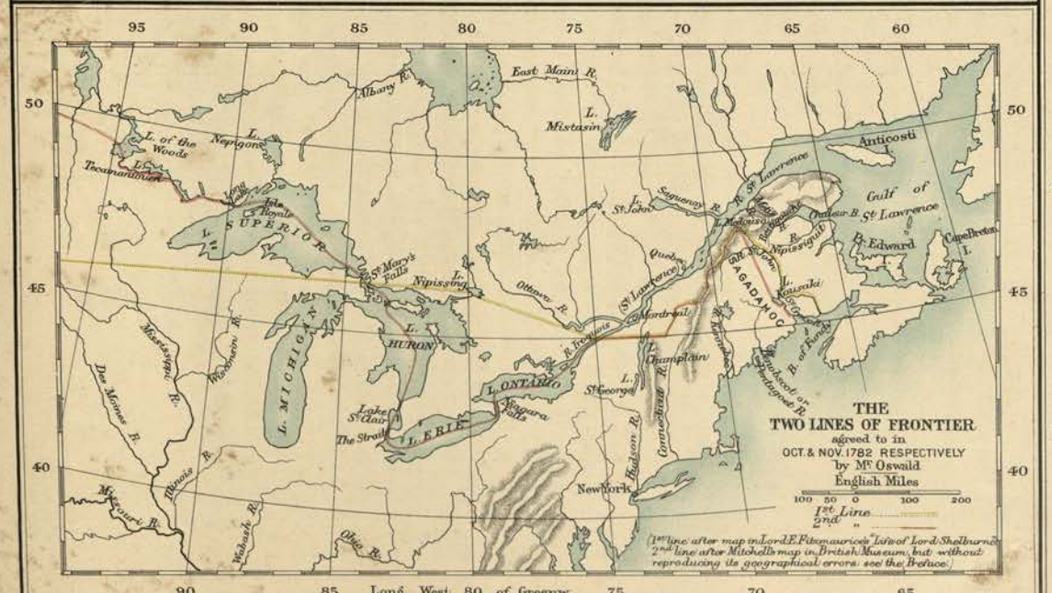
THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA AFTER THE TREATY OF 1783

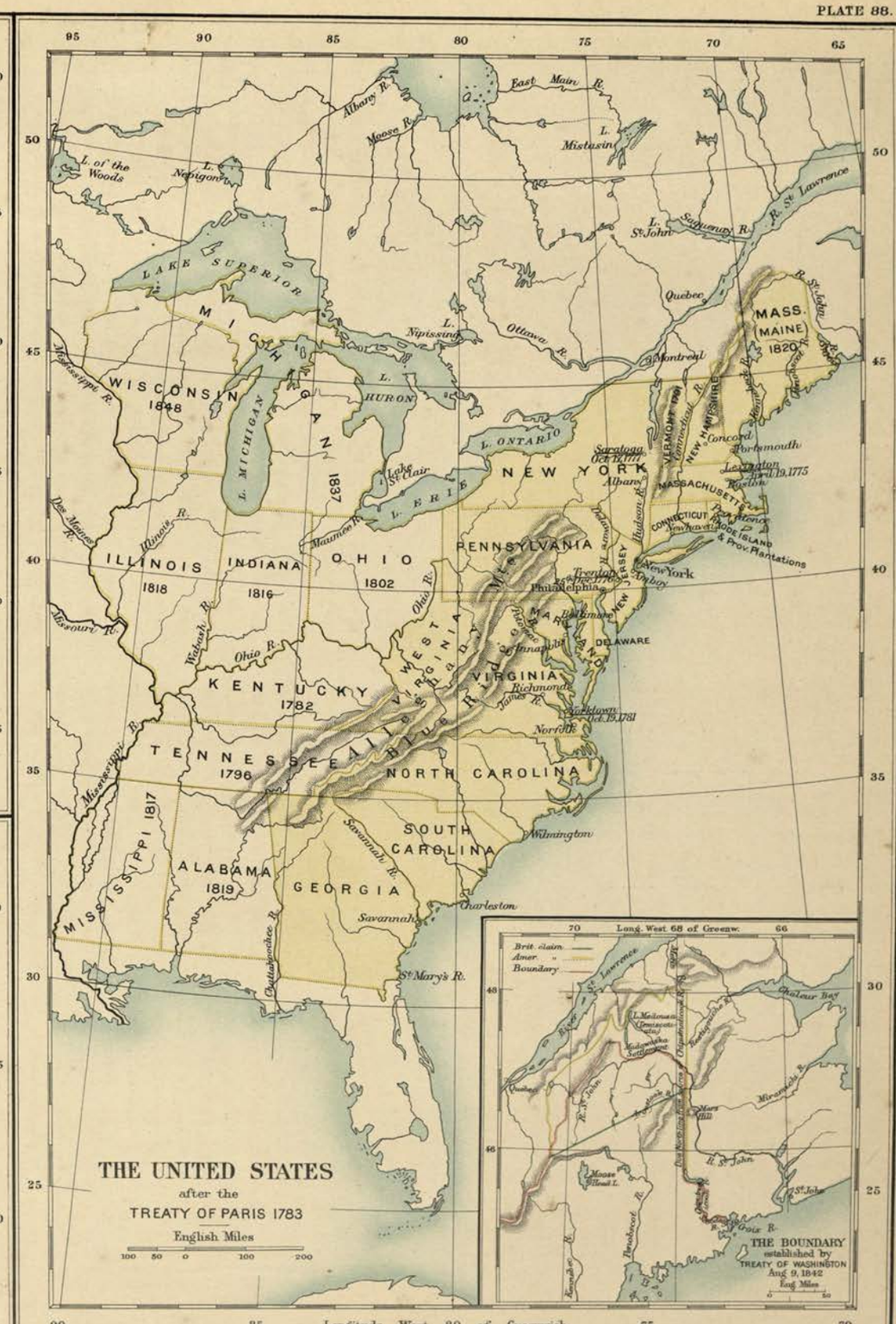
THE signing of the Treaty of Paris, September 3, 1783, marked the formal appearance upon the world-stage of a new great Power. By the first Article, 'His Britannic Majesty acknowledges the said United States, viz. New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be free, sovereign, and independent States; that he treats with them as such . . and relinquishes all claim to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the same and every part thereof.' Vermont, which had originally been part of New Hampshire, but had been joined to New York in 1764, became a separate State in 1791; Maine was carved out of Massachusetts in 1820; and West Virginia out of Virginia in 1863.

In defining the area of the United States, the Treaty, instead of leaving the task of finding exact boundaries to commissioners appointed for the purpose, endeavoured, in the absence of geographical knowledge and correct maps, to achieve the impossible. On the east and west the Atlantic Ocean and the Mississippi afforded natural boundaries, though we may note that the Mississippi boundary was not obtained without a struggle. The British contention had been that not only should the United States not include any territory comprehended within the province of Quebec, but that the whole western country should remain British, including even lands within the areas of the colonial charters, where such lands had remained ungranted by the King of Great Britain. The recognition of the Mississippi as the western boundary was of far-reaching importance. The tendency to move into the fertile backlands, watered by the Ohio, was already beginning, and any attempt to check it must have led to renewed hostilities. The western lands were at first claimed by the individual States, on the ground of the terms of their charters, cession by Indians, or conquest, but finally the various claimants ceded their rights to the United States; and in 1787 the Ordinance was passed under which these lands, at first governed by Congress, became, with the growth of their population, first Territories, and finally States of the Union. Although this Ordinance applied only to the lands north-west of the Ohio, it was followed as a precedent in dealing with other districts. By this means nine new States were eventually carved out of the western lands ceded in 1783, viz. Kentucky (1792), Tennessee (1796), Ohio (1802) Indiana (1816), Mississippi (1817), Illinois (1818), Alabama (1819), Michigan (1837), and Wisconsin (1848). The constitutional method adopted by the United States served to disguise the fact that the result showed the most successful natural emigration known in history.

It was the belief that France was opposing American interests, with regard to the western country, which led Jay—who, with John Adams and Franklin, was American Commissioner—to desire to come to terms with Great Britain before the formal signing of peace between the latter and France. The aims of the French in 1782 are indicated in a map on the left hand of the accompanying Plate. According to Jay, France was opposed to the fisheries, under the Treaty of Utrecht, being thrown open to the Americans, while Spain was anxious to exclude them from the free navigation of the Mississippi. On the south the boundary question seemed tolerably clear. The southern boundary was the northern boundary of the Floridas according to the 1763 Proclamation. Inasmuch, however, as 'the Floridas' were ceded to Spain by the 1783 treaty without any statement of boundary, and as the commissions of the English governors of West Florida had extended to 32 degrees 30 minutes, Spain maintained that she was not bound by the 31st degree boundary mentioned in the treaty between Great Britain and the United States. The question was settled in 1795 in favour of the American claim. It was, however, on the north-east and north that the main difficulties arose. The Treaty runs, 'East by a line to be drawn along the middle of the river St. Croix, from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy to its source, and from its source directly north to the aforesaid Highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic Ocean from those that fall into the river St. Lawrence.' The northern boundary had been defined, 'From the north-west angle of Nova Scotia, viz. that angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the source of the St. Croix River to the Highlands; along the said Highlands which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut River; then down the middle of that river to the 45th degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due west on said latitude until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraquy; then along the middle of said river into Lake Ontario, through the middle of said lake until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle


THE FRENCH PROPOSALS OF 1782
ACCORDING TO JAY
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300 400
Indian Territory to be under Spanish or American protection according as it lay East or West of the green intersecting line.
UNITED STATES
INDIAN TERRITORY
SPANISH POSSESSIONS
CANADA
GULF OF MEXICO
Bahama Is.
Long. West 75 of Greenw.


THE
TWO LINES OF FRONTIER
agreed to in
OCT. & NOV. 1782 RESPECTIVELY
by Mr Oswald
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200
1st Line
2nd "
(1st line after map in Lord E. Fitzmaurice's Life of Lord Shelburne
2nd line after Mitchell's map in British Museum, but without reproducing its geographical errors: see the Preface.)
Long. West 80 of Greenw.



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of the said communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of said lake, until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and Lake Huron ; thence through the middle of said lake to the water communication between that lake and Lake Superior ; thence through Lake Superior northward of the Isles Royal and Philipeaux to the Long Lake; thence through the middle of said Long Lake and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods to the said Lake of the Woods; thence through the said lake to the most north-westernmost point thereof, and from thence on a due west course to the Mississippi.' The Treaty repeated the provisions of the articles of agreement which had been signed by the Commissioners on November 30, 1782, France having consented to such negotiations, so long as their formal ratification was postponed until the signing of peace between Great Britain and herself.

In conducting the negotiations, Oswald, the British Commissioner, was assisted by Strachey, who arrived in Paris at the end of October, 1782. The British representatives desired that the Kennebec River should be the boundary between Nova Scotia and Massachusetts, thus repeating a claim which Great Britain had strenuously resisted when made by France on behalf of Acadie.

The final terms were, however, more favourable to England than had been the preliminary agreement signed by Oswald on October 8, 1782. Oswald, who had begun by receiving with favour Franklin's suggestion that the best means of making peace permanent was to hand over to the United States Canada and Nova Scotia—a course to which Rockingham and Shelburne were reported to seem 'not very averse'—had finally agreed to the following boundary: 'East by a line to be drawn along the middle of St. John River from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy, . . . north by a line to be drawn from the north-west angle of Nova Scotia along the highlands which divide those rivers which empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean to the northernmost head of Connecticut River; thence down along the middle of that river to the 45th degree of north latitude, and thence due west in the latitude 45 degrees north from the Equator to the north-westernmost side of the river St. Lawrence; thence straight to the south end of the Lake Nipissing, and thence straight to the source of the river Mississippi.' The difference in the frontier as settled by the first and the second agreement is brought out in the lower map on the left hand of the Plate.

A proposed addition to the agreement was made by Franklin, who wisely suggested that on the east the true line between Nova Scotia and the United States should be settled by Commissioners on the spot. This agreement was not approved by the British Government. The intention apparently was that the frontier should follow the St. John river and the branch which is now known as the Madawaska, but which was then incorrectly considered the main stream. The Highlands would then be the hills at the head of this river near Lake Medousa.

The elaborate detail with which the boundaries in the final agreement were set out arose from the intention 'that all disputes which might arise in future on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States may be prevented,' but the result was to emphasize the danger of using geographical expressions without an exact knowledge of geography. The Commissioners were assisted by 'Mr. Roberts, a clerk in some of the Public Offices, with books, maps, and papers relative to the boundaries.' Unfortunately, however, the map used, Mitchell's, was afterwards shown to be incorrect. The geographical notions in England of the river St. Lawrence from its mouth upwards were in 1755 exclusively derived from French maps, whilst those of the Atlantic shores were chiefly derived from British observations. And so it happened that, although the errors were on the same side, the difference was greater by nearly one degree of longitude on the river St. Lawrence than on the Atlantic shores. Hence it followed that 'the position of the several short rivers that fall into the river St. Lawrence from the south, and of the places determined by reference to those rivers, was placed on the maps from forty to fifty miles east of their real position relatively to the various places along the Atlantic shores[1].' For this reason the source of the St. John or Madawaska (then considered the main stream), which was considered as the north-west angle of Nova Scotia, is placed on Mitchell's map only five miles west of the termination of the line drawn due north, whereas in fact it lay about forty-five miles to the west.

Moreover, although the fact was unattended with practical results, the Mississippi of course does not rise at a point due west of the Lake of the Woods, neither was there such a lake as the Long Lake marked by Mitchell. It was on the meaning of the terms used with regard to the eastern and north-eastern boundary that controversy arose. Even with regard to the identity of the St. Croix river, although it had been often mentioned in old grants, there was a difference of opinion which was not settled until Commissioners had been appointed under the Treaty of 1794, when a monument was erected at the site which was agreed to be the source of that river. The great crux of the boundary question was, however, the meaning to be attached to the words relating to 'the north-west angle' of Nova Scotia. There is not room here to embark upon the long and confused controversy, which was not settled till the signing of the Ashburton Treaty in 1842, but the general conclusion would seem to be, in the words of Jefferson in 1803, that 'the boundaries . . . were too imperfectly described to be susceptible of execution.' The justice of this statement was shown at a later date, when the Commissioners, who were appointed under the Treaty of Ghent, 1814, were found to differ hopelessly, and again in 1831, when the King of the Belgians, to whom had been referred the decision of the question, was unable to agree to either the American or the British contention, and proposed a new boundary of his own, thereby, as the Americans contended, exceeding the terms of his authority as arbitrator. The extreme British contention implied that the words 'directly north' meant north-west, while the American claim involved the conclusion that rivers 'falling into the Atlantic Ocean' meant rivers falling anywhere except into the river St. Lawrence. In this state of things the task of diplomacy was to settle a new boundary and not to interpret the meaning of the old one. As, however, the Treaty of 1842 put an end to the controversy, which had been in existence about sixty years, it seems desirable to compare the Ashburton Boundary with the respective claims of Great Britain and the United States. (See the small map in the right-hand corner of the Plate.)

The other Articles of the Treaty of Paris indirectly concerned with geographical questions were the third, which gave

[1] A. Gallatin, *The North-East Boundary Question.*

the Americans the right to use the Newfoundland and other fisheries, and the ninth, which made the navigation of the river Mississippi free both to British subjects and to American citizens.

The red line on the lower map on the left hand of the Plate has been traced, by the kind permission of the authorities, from part of the map in the British Museum. It is impossible, of course, to command accuracy where the scales are so very different. The map was in the possession of King George III, having Oswald's boundary marked in red. It was not returned by the King, and thus became part of the library which afterwards came into the possession of the British Museum. Its evidence is not conclusive, as there is nothing to prove that it represents the finally accepted boundary, but it is strong *primâ facie* evidence against the validity of the British claim.

Two other maps should be mentioned. Franklin, in a letter, speaks of sending a map with the boundary marked on it to the French Minister, and the American historian Sparks found a map in the French archives with a red line. This map supported the extreme British contention, but there is no evidence to identify it with the one mentioned by Franklin. The other map is in the Record Office, and is described in the Catalogue as 'the map used by Mr. Oswald.' There appears, however, to be no evidence, on the map or elsewhere, to support this description.

HUGH E. EGERTON.

LXXXIX

EUROPEAN COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES, AND STATES INDEPENDENT OF EUROPEAN POWERS, 1815–1897

LXXXIX

EUROPEAN COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES, AND STATES INDEPENDENT OF EUROPEAN POWERS, 1815–1897

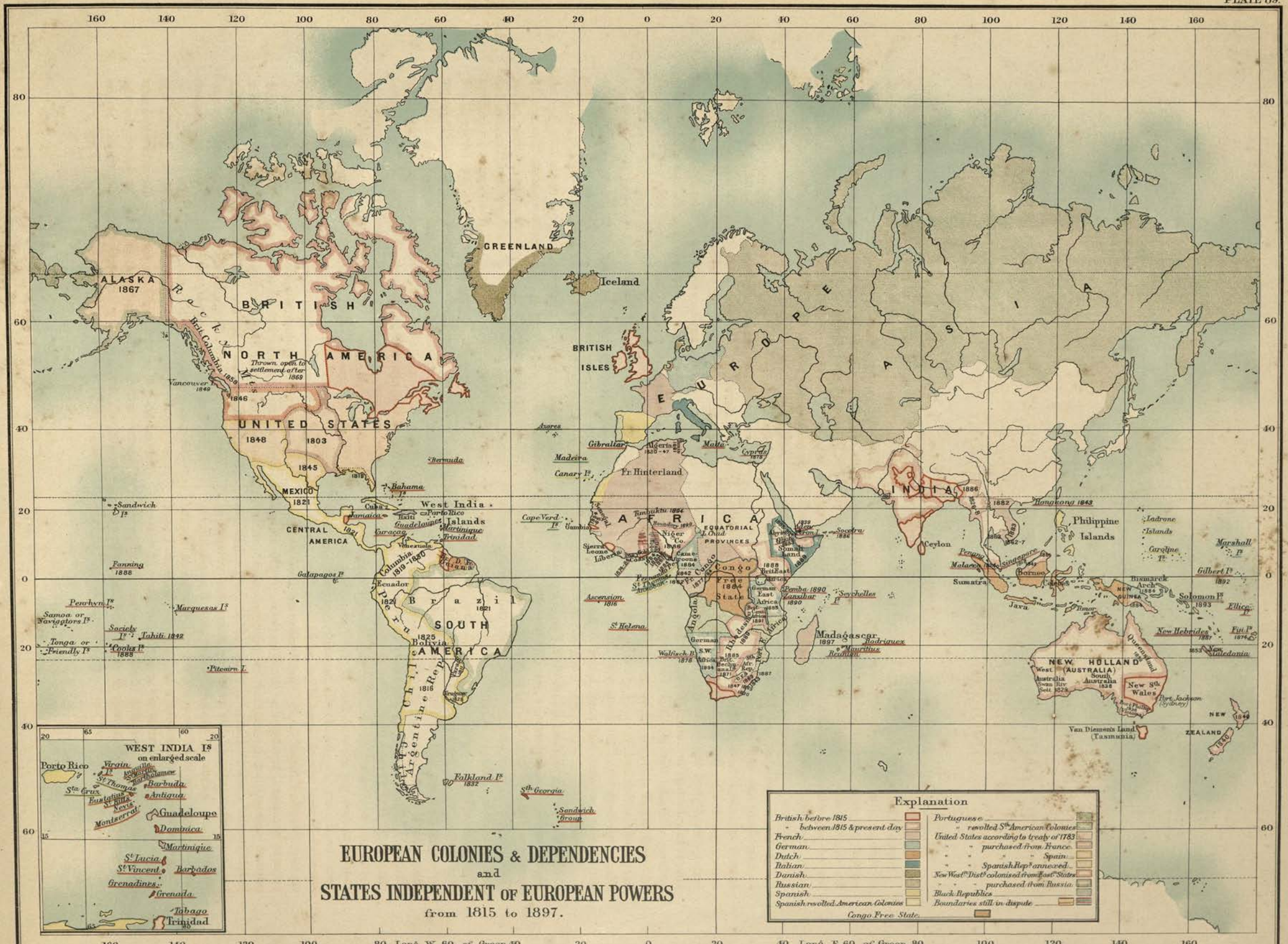
IMPORTANT as is the date 1815, from the general point of view of European history, it forms no special landmark in the progress of colonial development. The settlement arrived at carried, indeed, with it the renunciation of the Napoleonic aims at a world-empire; but, in fact, the naval supremacy of England had for many years rendered such aims hopeless. Although the close of the great war left Great Britain with an overwhelming sea power, there was no desire to use that power so as to extend the empire. British statesmen had not yet recovered from the disillusion caused by the loss of the American colonies. Under the arrangement with the Netherlands, made in August, 1814, Great Britain had retained the Cape of Good Hope, and Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice (British Guiana), but had restored Batavia (Java) thus abandoning the new empire in the East Indian Archipelago which the genius of Sir Stamford Raffles had won. Ceylon, as having been ceded before the last war, had remained British. Great Britain had further restored Surinam, Curaçao, and St. Eustatius. Under the Treaty of Paris (May, 1814) Great Britain restored to France all the colonies, fisheries, &c., which the latter had possessed in January, 1792, 'in the seas, or on the continents, of America, Africa, and Asia, with the exception of Tobago, St. Lucia, and the Isle of France (Mauritius) with its dependencies, Rodrigues and the Seychelles' (Article VIII). 'As to the French right of fishery on the grand bank of Newfoundland, on the coasts of the isle of that name, and the adjacent isles, and in the gulf of St. Lawrence, everything shall be restored to the same footing as in 1792' (Article XIII). (Trinidad had already become British under the Treaty of Amiens, 1802.) The moderation of the British conditions was expressly defended by Lord Castlereagh in Parliament, on the ground that it was 'expedient freely to open to France the means of peaceful occupation.' The retention of the Cape of Good Hope, which had been restored to the Batavian Republic by the Treaty of Amiens, was deemed necessary, not because it might develop into an important colony, but because of its position as a halfway house on the road to India. In the same spirit Mauritius was retained, because of the mischief which it had occasioned when in the hands of France. Australia, it must be remembered, was at the time a mere penal settlement, Lower Canada a hotbed of discontent and disaffection, and Upper Canada the close preserve of a 'family compact.' Moreover, the demands of the war had checked the natural increase of population, so that there was on all sides much indifference to colonial expansion. The case of India stands on a footing by itself, and is dealt with in a separate portion of this Atlas. The development of an Indian Empire had in fact little to do with the policies of statesmen at home.

Whatever the attitude of British Ministers, the work of expansion went on, in its old way, by the action of individual Englishmen. We have already noticed that Sir Stamford Raffles had been disappointed in his hopes of securing for England the dominion of the islands in the East Indies, but, by the foundation of Singapore in 1819, he was able to forge a very important link in the chain of British dominion in the East. In 1824, by treaty between Great Britain and the Netherlands, the latter, in return for Bencoolen and the other English settlements in Sumatra, ceded Malacca, along with all the settlements on the continent of India, and covenanted to acquiesce in the British possession of Singapore. Although as early as 1817 Raffles had noted the desire of France to establish an intercourse with Siam and Cochin China, the development of the French Eastern Empire belongs to quite recent days.

For many years of the century there seemed no serious desire among the European nations to emulate England as a colonial Power. At the commencement of our period Spain was still in possession of its American Empire, but revolution soon deprived it of all its Western dominions except Cuba and Porto Rico. Portugal suffered a similar fate in Brazil. Its African possessions, however, remained nominally the same, though little was done to render occupation effective. Holland, through the moderation of Great Britain, resumed its special type of colonial empire, though it was no longer able to retain an unrestricted monopoly of trade.

With the progress of the century, however, a new aspect of affairs became apparent. The distress following upon the close of the war directed attention to emigration as an outlet for surplus population, and it was natural to desire that such emigrants should not cease to be British subjects. During these years, then, Ontario was largely peopled with British emigrants, and Western Australia, South Australia, New Zealand, and Albany in Cape Colony were colonized. There might be reluctance at home to accept new responsibilities, but, in spite of this, the work of colonial expansion went steadily on.

Moreover, it soon became apparent that Great Britain was not to be left in solitary supremacy as an active colonial Power. Africa, as the one portion of the world not, for the most part, occupied by civilized or semi-civilized States,



EUROPEAN COLONIES & DEPENDENCIES
and
STATES INDEPENDENT OF EUROPEAN POWERS
from 1815 to 1897.

Explanation

- British before 1815
- " between 1815 & present day
- French
- German
- Dutch
- Italian
- Danish
- Russian
- Spanish
- Spanish revolted American Colonies
- Congo Free State
- Portuguese
- " revolted S^th American Colonies
- United States according to treaty of 1783
- " " purchased from France
- " " " Spain
- " " Spanish Rep^s annexed
- New West^n Dist^s colonised from East^n States
- " " purchased from Russia
- Black Republics
- Boundaries still in dispute

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became the natural theatre of the new struggle. Almost continuously from the date of the conquest of Algiers (1830), the French have been interested in the creation of a vast North African Empire. Between 1854 and 1865 General Faidherbe greatly extended the limits of Senegambia. Much of the coveted empire is inhospitable desert, and the Tuaregs of the interior make a stubborn resistance, but Timbuktu was taken in 1894, and it seems most in accordance with facts to colour French so much of North-west Africa as is not claimed by other Powers in an effective manner. It must always, however, be remembered that a great deal of this vast dominion is, as yet, held only in name. It is impossible here to do more than note the general partition of Africa which ensued after the appearance upon the scene, in 1884, of Germany as a colonial Power. If the map of Africa in 1815 and at the present day be compared, the contrast is startling. The greater portion of Africa has now been partitioned between the various European Powers, though an important region, viz. the so-called Equatorial Provinces, which belonged to Egypt, but which were abandoned upon the advance of the Mahdi, must be still left blank. The boundaries of England and France on the hinterland of Lagos were the subject of negotiation at the date with which the map ends. The student should note the interesting experiment of the Congo Free State founded under the European recognition of the Berlin Congress, 1884–5. It seems, however, as yet hardly to have met with the success which the good intentions of the King of the Belgians deserved. On the scale of this map it is impossible to discriminate between crown colonies, protectorates, and territories granted to chartered companies, important as is the distinction both historically and politically. Again, one cannot attempt to show the gradual and uncertain steps by which Great Britain, often against the will of Ministers at home, little by little expanded in South Africa. It would require an Atlas by itself properly to describe the shifting boundaries, now advancing, now receding, but in the long run steadily advancing, which reflected at once the vacillations of statesmen and the permanent tendencies of the national character.

An explanation is required of the colouring adopted in the map with regard to Canada and Australia. It is quite true that in a vague way either the territories of the Hudson's Bay Company or those of Canada included the western districts, but it seems better to regard the substance rather than the form, and, from this point of view, the throwing open of Manitoba and the North-west, after the buying out of the claims of the Hudson's Bay Company in 1869, amounted to the creation of a vast new colony. In the same way the original commission to Captain Phillip included the whole east coast of New Holland from Torres Strait in the north to South Cape in the south, stretching inland up to the 135th degree of longitude east. New South Wales thus comprised the present colonies of New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, Tasmania, a portion of South Australia, the bulk of New Zealand, Fiji, &c.; but all these, with the exception of the parent colony, which till 1824 included Van Diemen's Land, start as actual colonies from a much later date. It is to be noted that at the time of Phillip's commission Van Diemen's Land was held to be part of the mainland.

In the marking of the United States the endeavour has been made to bring out a fact which is often forgotten. The geographical continuity of the United States, as well as its federal form of government, serves to obscure the truth that the Western States are, for the most part, colonies in one sense of the word, inasmuch as they owe their population to emigration from the Eastern States. This is wholly true in the case of the extreme North-western States, while in those States which once formed part of the Spanish or French dominions the original stock has been almost completely swamped by the flood of Anglo-American immigration.

We have already mentioned in South America the revolution which completely changed the map between 1815 and 1825. The exact boundary between British Guiana and Venezuela remained unsettled at the end of the period covered by the map. With regard to the South American Republics, the exact terms of the original Monroe doctrine (Dec. 1823) should be noticed, which, while expressly disclaiming any right to interfere with the existing colonies or dependencies of any European Power, declared that it would be held by the United States to be an unfriendly act for any European Power to interfere in the affairs of the independent American Republics. It will be observed that Patagonia has been left blank as not having formed part of the Spanish dominions. At the present time, however, it is part of the Argentine Republic, except its extreme western border and the extreme south, which belong to Chile. Tierra del Fuego is divided between the Argentine Republic and Chile.

Since 1815 the development of steam navigation has created the necessity for a new kind of colonial possession. The map of the colonial world is studded with lines marking the coaling stations required by a colonial empire which depends upon sea power. In this respect the advantage to Great Britain is great in having had so long a start of other Powers as a colonial empire. Great Britain was thus able to select the most eligible sites long before the ambitions and jealousies of other nations had been aroused. The proposed annexation of the Hawaii Islands by the United States was not ratified at the time at which the map ends. Such annexation would undoubtedly involve a very important departure in the foreign policy of the United States.

HUGH E. EGERTON.

XC

SOUTH AFRICA

PREVIOUS TO THE SUPPRESSION OF THE BOER REPUBLICS

XC

SOUTH AFRICA

PREVIOUS TO THE SUPPRESSION OF THE BOER REPUBLICS

THE history of European settlement in South Africa is one of a tardy Northward movement from the Cape of Good Hope. Discovered by Bartholomew Diaz in 1487, Table Bay was for a century and a half nothing more than a neutral stopping place for the mariners of all nations bound for the East—Portuguese, Dutch, English, French, and Danish. It was to serve the interests of their Eastern possessions that the Netherlands East India Company decided, in the middle of the seventeenth century, to establish a permanent self-supporting station there, and thus unintentionally laid the foundations of *Cape Colony*.

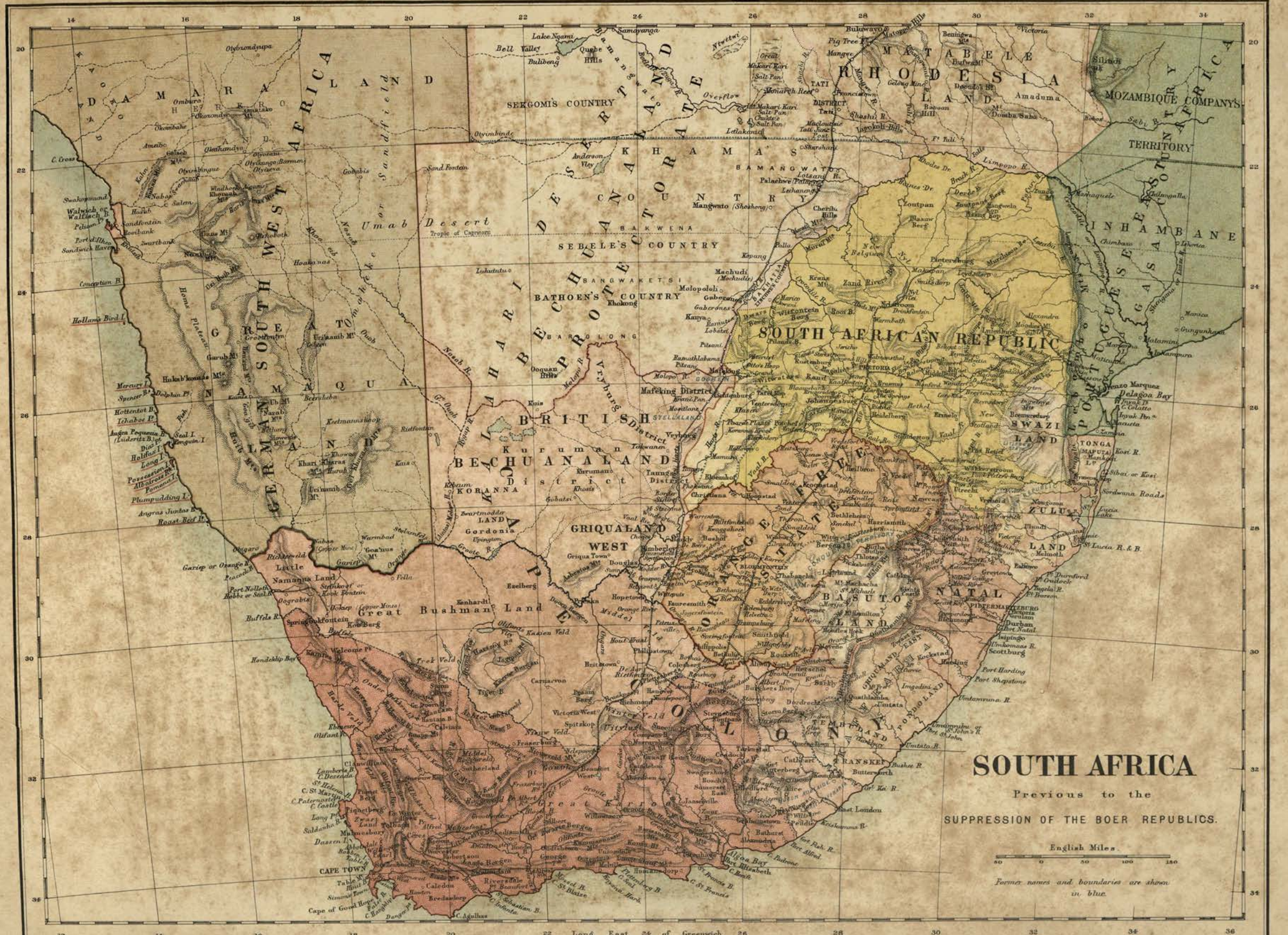
It is not possible to trace in a single map the gradual expansion of the Colony under Dutch rule from the solitary fort built by Jan van Riebeek in 1652 to the considerable tract of country which finally came under British jurisdiction in 1814. The total result is shown by a boundary starting from the Buffalo River in the West and terminating at the Great Fish River in the South—the enclosed area being coloured a *dark* shade of red and representing Cape Colony as it stood at the date of cession, the first stage in the building of British South Africa.

The transference of Cape Colony from Dutch to British rule was followed, especially in the Eastern districts, by a considerable British immigration, partly spontaneous and partly, as in the case of the *Albany Settlement*, with its centre at Bathurst, directed by the Imperial Government: constitutional and judicial changes were effected on British lines; and English was made the official language of the Colony. In a country where land was practically unlimited, it was more natural for malcontents to remove themselves from the effects of such changes as these than to revolt against them. The geographical result was, first, expansion, and, ultimately, secession and the foundation of new States in the North. Meanwhile the boundaries of the Colony were extended both to the North and to the East.

The expansion to the North was a comparatively simple matter. No warlike tribes barred the way; and within a few years the Orange River was regarded as the boundary for nearly the whole of its course. The Eastern frontier, on the other hand, became the scene of constantly recurring struggles with the Kaffirs, a people who, like the European settlers, had been constantly moving forward, but in an opposite direction. The Kaffir wars of 1811–12, 1818–19, 1834, 1846, and 1850–53 left each its alteration in the boundary and the administration of the border district, and here again it is only possible to indicate on the map the general progress made. The British frontier was pushed forward in 1819 to the Keiskamma and in 1835 to the Kei River, this latter advance being supported by Sir Benjamin D'Urban's foundation of the frontier *Province of Queen Adelaide* with its headquarters at King Williamstown. In the same year a change of Ministry at home led to the retrocession of the conquered territory by Lord Glenelg, and it was not until after another war that Sir B. D'Urban's forward policy was vindicated by his old lieutenant, Sir Harry Smith, and his frontier province reconstituted under the new name of *British Kaffraria* in 1847. The territory indicated by the *middle* shade of red, i.e. bounded by the Orange River to the North and by the Kei River and the Drakensberg to the East, represents roughly the addition made to British South Africa in the twenty years between the British occupation and Sir B. D'Urban's Proclamation of 1835.

The next twenty years saw the foundation of three new States in South Africa, the British Colony of *Natal* and the two *Dutch Republics* North of the Orange River. The discontented farmers (Boers) of Cape Colony began their migration (the 'Great Trek') in 1836, and moved in scattered parties into the countries of the Matabele, the Basuto, and the Zulu,—North across the Orange and Vaal Rivers, and East across the Drakensberg into Natal. No formal declaration of secession was made, nor was there in the beginning any definite question of boundaries or constitution. A Council (Volksraad) was established for the Districts of *Winburg* and *Potchefstroom*, and another for *Natal*. But the whole of the emigrant Boers were regarded for certain purposes as a single people. It was the claim of the Boers in Natal to formal recognition as an independent Republic and their aggressions in Pondoland that first roused the Imperial Government. Natal was annexed to the British Crown in 1843, and after a brief period of dependence on the Cape was constituted a separate Colony. Her boundaries have remained with few changes as they were at the beginning. The *District of Alfred*, between the Umzinkulu and the Umtamvuna Rivers, was added in 1866, and *Zululand* with *Tongaland* was finally made an integral part of the Colony in 1897.

In the North the British Government made a brief and less whole-hearted effort to control the destinies of the 'trekkers.' The latter had hitherto been regarded officially


SOUTH AFRICA
Previous to the
SUPPRESSION OF THE BOER REPUBLICS.
English Miles
50 0 50 100 150
Former names and boundaries are shown in blue.
Long. East of Greenwich
GERMAN SOUTH WEST AFRICA
GREAT NAMAQUA LAND
GREAT NAMAQUA LAND
DAMARA LAND
DAMARA LAND
HERERO LAND
DESERT ANNEXATION
KHAMAS COUNTRY
BAMANGWATO COUNTRY
SEBELE'S COUNTRY
BATHOEN'S COUNTRY
BAKWENA
BANGWAKETSI
BAROLONG
KORANNA District
Kuruman District
Mafeking District
BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE
BRITISH BECHUANALAND
KALAHARI DESERT
Umab Desert
Tropic of Capricorn
SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC
ORANGE FREE STATE
GRIQUALAND WEST
Great Bushman Land
Little Namaqua Land
Great Karoo
Great Karoo
BASUTO LAND
SWAZI LAND
ZULU LAND
NATAL
COLONY
TEMBULAND
PONDOLAND
GRIQUALAND EAST
TRANSKEI
MATABELE LAND
RHODESIA
MOZAMBIQUE COMPANY'S TERRITORY
PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA
INHAMBANE
TONGA (MAPUTA) Land
CAPE TOWN
Cape of Good Hope
C. Agulhas
Walvisch or Walfisch B.
Sandwich Haven
Hollam's Bird I.
Mercury I.
Spencer B.
Hottentot B.
Ichaboe P.
Angra Pequena B. (Lüderitz Bay)
Seal I.
Penguin I.
Possession I.
Albatross Rk.
Plumpudding I.
Angras Juntas B.
Roast Beef Rk.
Conception B.
C. Cross
Walvisch or Walfisch B.
Hakab'kouas Mt.
Garub Mt.
Uri'aanib Mt.
Otjozondjupa
Lake Ngami
Samayanga
Bell Valley
Bulibeng
Quebe Hills
Sand Fontein
Gobabis
Otyombinde
Otyozondu
Okozondjou Mt.
Okombahe
Ameib
Gelsib Mt.
Otyikandiva
Otyosazu
Otyikango Barmen
Otyiseva
Windhoek
Khomas Mt.
Khomas Hochland
Okahandja
Otjosazu
Nabas
Salem
Rehoboth
Hoakanas
Naosib Mt.
Swartbank
Kowibank
Sandfontein
Pelican I.
Port Elizabeth
Hasib
Khan R.
Swakop R.
Nosob R.
Nauas Mts.
Hoams Plateau
Ubib Mt.
Nabab Mts.
Kubub
Kuibis
Berseba
Keetmanshoop
Ridfontein
Kuis
Khan
Khuras
Khuras Mts.
Ukamab Mt.
Kais
Khoais
Kuruman
Tosanan
Taung
Bloemhof
Lichtenburg
Christiana
Hoopstad
Kroonstad
Heilbron
Frankfort
Vredefort
Parys
Potchefstroom
Klerksdorp
Wolmaransstad
Ventersdorp
Lichtenburg
Zeerust
Rustenburg
Pilansberg
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Rand
Krugersdorp
Heidelberg
Ermelo
Standerton
Bethel
Middelburg
Witbank
Belfast
Lydenburg
Barberton
Pilgrim's Rest
Leydsdorp
Zoutpansberg
Waterberg
Nylstroom
Potgietersrust
Pietersburg
Marabastad
Warmbath
Rooiberg
Zand River
Vredefort Dome
Vaal R.
Harrismith
Bethlehem
Ficksburg
Senekal
Winburg
Kroonstad
Bloemfontein
Thaba Nchu
Ladybrand
Wepener
Rouxville
Smithfield
Philippolis
Hopetown
Griqua Town
Douglas
Barkly West
Kimberley
Beaconsfield
Warrenton
Taungs
Vryburg
Mafeking
Gaberones
Molopolole
Machudi (Mochudi)
Kanye
Lobatsi
Pilansberg
Ramathlabama
Ootsan Hills
Molopo R.
Nossob R.
Auob R.
Gt. Orab
Melopo R.
Vryburg District
Kuruman
Taungs District
Khosis
Kolobeng R.
Limpopo R.
Shashi R.
Macloutsie R.
Tati
Francistown
Monarch Reef
Tati Junction Post
Lotlakane
Palachwe
Lotsane R.
Lechanee
Mangwato (Shoshong)
Cheribi Hills
Sharshard
Anderson Vley
Lake Makari Kari
Salt Pan
Chuckie Salt Pan
Great Makari Kari Salt Pan
Overflow
Nwetsi
Bell Valley
Bulibeng
Quebe Hills
Buluwayo
Matopo Hills
Pig Tree P.
Mangwe
Beningwa Mt.
Victoria
Silinda Mt.
Gelong Mine
Baboon Hill
Amaduma
Umtali
Umtali R.
Sabi R.
Lundi R.
Shashi R.
Tokwe R.
Ft Tuli
Limpopo R.
Crocodile R.
Marico R.
Elands R.
Zand River
Vaal R.
Orange River
Middle Orange
Upper Orange
Gariep or Orange R.
Fish R.
Great Fish R.
Great Kei R.
Buffalo R.
Keiskamma R.
Kei R.
Umtata R.
Umzimvubu or St John's R.
Umzimkulu R.
Umkomaas R.
Umtamvuna R.
Tugela R.
Buffalo R.
Klip R.
Caledon R.
Olifants R.
Berg R.
Breede R.
Gouritz R.
Gamtoos R.
Sundays R.
Zwartkops R.
Keiskamma R.
Great Kei R.
Bashee

as vagrant British subjects, and it was to compose their differences with the Griquas and the Basutos that Sir H. Smith visited the disturbed country in 1848, and proclaimed British Sovereignty over the territory between the Orange and Vaal Rivers. But the dislike of the home Government for this extension of their responsibility involved his recall, and the difficulties experienced in the Basuto war of 1852 led to the final abandonment of the *Orange River Sovereignty*. The Convention of Bloemfontein signed in 1854 guaranteed the future independence of the country and its government. Meanwhile the *Transvaal* Boers had taken advantage of the difficulties of the British cause to open negotiations on their own behalf and had been conceded self-government by the Sand River Convention of 1852.

This period marks the lowest ebb of British influence in South Africa. For the next fifteen years the Boer Republics were practically left to themselves. But Cape Colony and Natal were consolidating their strength with increasing powers of self-government, and Sir George Grey's scheme of a British South African Federation was receiving serious discussion at home. A more energetic spirit marked the next stage of British intervention North of the Orange River.

The chronic struggle of Moshesh with the Orange Free State was finally closed by the inclusion of the Basutos, at their own request, in the British Empire in 1869, when the Treaty of Aliwal North handed over a portion of what had been *Basutoland* (known and marked on the map as the *Conquered Territory*) to the Free State and settled the boundary of the two countries as it exists to-day.

Simultaneously the discovery of diamonds at Kimberley led to a dispute for the possession of *Griqualand West* which affected the Transvaal as well as the Orange Free State. Waterboer, the Griqua Chief, handed over his country like Moshesh to the Queen's Dominions, and the new British *Province of Griqualand West* was proclaimed and constituted in 1871. In the same year the Transvaal claim to territory was settled by arbitration—the Keate Award, which was accepted under protest by the Boer Government, being the Easternmost of the three boundary lines shown on the map in the South-West corner of the Transvaal. Finally a Convention signed in London in 1876 decided the Western boundary of the Orange Free State as it has existed since, and a sum of money was paid over by the British Government in consideration of the abandonment by the Free State of all claim to the diamond district.

These agreements marked no permanent settlement, but were only the beginning of the busiest period of European activity in South Africa. The same two causes which had led to the restriction of the Orange Free State, viz. the disturbances between the Boers and the Native Chiefs and the discovery of mineral wealth leading to an influx of foreigners, henceforth brought about British intervention in the Transvaal. The impotent quarrels of the bankrupt Boer Government with Sekukuni in the Lydenburg District and with the Zulus soon became a standing menace to the peace and prosperity of the whole of South Africa, and in 1877 Lord Carnarvon empowered Sir Theophilus Shepstone to annex the Transvaal Republic to the British Dominions. No active opposition was made to this step at the time, but three years later,—their enemies Cetewayo and Sekukuni having meanwhile been subdued and their treasury replenished by the British occupation,—the Boers once more proclaimed a Republic by force of arms and, after a series of initial victories, were again conceded a modified independence by the Convention of Pretoria, 1881. Still further concessions were made by the Convention of London, 1884, by which the Transvaal became officially the *South African Republic*. Each of these conventions among other provisions added something to the territory of the Transvaal in the disputed South-Western corner. The three boundary lines shown in the map as running roughly between Mafeking and Warrenton represent respectively, from East to West, the results of the Sand River, the Pretoria, and the London Conventions.

In another direction, too, the Boers were enabled to use their victory for the purpose of extending their borders. The destruction of Cetewayo's kingdom during the British occupation of Pretoria emboldened the Dutch farmers in the South-East to recommence their encroachments into *Zululand*, and the territory known as the *New Republic* was formally recognized by the British Government as forming part of the South African Republic in 1886.

Various similar efforts were made to induce the Suzerain Power to recognize the annexation of *Swaziland*, but nothing more was ever conceded than permission to administer the country from Pretoria as a sort of Protectorate.

These concessions to the Government of the South African Republic were of minor importance in comparison with the vast expansion of British territory and government which has taken place, since, and in a sense because of, the retrocession of the Transvaal.

The encroachments of the Boers into Zululand led to their acquisition of the New Republic, but it led also to the proclamation of British Sovereignty over the remainder of Zululand in 1887, and the authority thus proclaimed was subsequently extended from time to time until it reached the Portuguese border—the most important addition being that of *Pondoland* in 1894. The whole Protectorate was finally annexed to Natal in 1897.

On the Western border of the Dutch Republics there was infinitely greater scope for British expansion and the results have been proportionately more striking. The Convention of London was followed by marauding expeditions by Boer freebooters into the Bechuana country and the establishment of the two small Republics there of *Goshen* and *Stellaland*. The disturbances that ensued led to Sir Charles Warren's bloodless expedition of 1884. The Western border of the South African Republic was finally settled and beaconed off; the country south of the Molopo River was constituted a British Colony under the name of *British Bechuanaland;* and a British Protectorate was proclaimed up to the twenty-second parallel of South latitude.

About the same time also began to operate the second of the two great causes mentioned above as having led to British intervention in the Transvaal—the discovery of gold on the Witwatersrand and the consequent influx of population. South Africa as a whole became an object of interest and intrigue to the Powers of Europe, and the extension of 'spheres of influence' over such territory as remained was speedily effected.

The year of Sir Charles Warren's expedition saw the establishment of the *German South-West Africa Protectorate* over the country from the Orange River to the borders of Portuguese West Africa, with the exception of Walfish Bay and a few small islands which had been proclaimed British possessions in 1878 and were now annexed to Cape Colony. Subsequently the Anglo-German Agreement of 1890 defined the Eastern limits of the German Protectorate.

As far as the East coast was concerned the Macmahon Award of 1875 had stopped all further claims to *Delagoa Bay* by definitely establishing the right of Portugal to the whole of it, and in 1891 the Portuguese frontier was, in consideration of various concessions in other parts of Africa, moved a little further South. The old and the new boundaries are both shown in the map.

Meanwhile a vast region to the North of the Transvaal was being brought under British protection through the instrumentality of the *British South Africa Company*, whose Royal Charter dates from 1899. The Northern limits of the Company's territories (now officially known as *Rhodesia*) are still in great part unsettled. Their Southern boundaries, which alone come within the scope of the present map, were defined, as against Portuguese East Africa, by the Anglo-Portuguese Convention of 1891, and as against the Bechuanaland Protectorate, which was now extended far beyond Sir Charles Warren's line of 1884, by the High Commissioner's Proclamation of 1895. Finally a Convention made between Great Britain and the South African Republic in 1890 definitely precluded the latter from any attempt to extend its territory North of the Limpopo River.

Somewhat overshadowed by more momentous events in the North, the British dominions on the South Coast were all the time being extended Eastward to join Natal. The *Transkei*, *Tembuland*, *Griqualand East*, and *Pondoland* were one after another brought first under a loose form of Protectorate Government and then incorporated in Cape Colony, whose final limits (indicated in the map by a single red line drawn round the whole) may be said to have been reached by the annexation of Pondoland in 1894.*

G. GEOFFREY ROBINSON.

* See C. P. Lucas's *Historical Geography of the British Colonies*, vol. iv. (Oxford, 1897).

POSTSCRIPT

THE foregoing account stops short before the events which led to the reincorporation of the Boer Republics in the British Empire. In consequence of disagreements between the South African Republic and the British Government in 1899, the former on Oct. 9 addressed an ultimatum to the latter, and after two days, in alliance with the Orange Free State, invaded the Colonies of Natal and of the Cape; large districts of which were formally annexed. In the war which followed, the British Commander-in-chief, Lord Roberts, after the occupation of Bloemfontein on March 13, 1900, proclaimed the annexation of the Free State, under the name of the *Orange River Colony*, on May 28. On June 5 he entered Pretoria, and on Oct. 25 annexed the territories of the South African Republic, to which the former name of the *Transvaal* was restored. But military operations on a smaller scale continued for another year and a half, until at length the leaders of the Boer forces in the field tendered their submission on May 31, 1902.

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